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GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

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## REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

The purpose of the REVIEW is to report the major research findings during a designated period, organized by areas of interest. The REVIEW identifies the significant studies, summarizes them, and, within limitations of space, critically analyzes them. It seeks to present syntheses of research findings which reflect educational insight and stimulate new research.

The more active fields of educational research are reviewed every three years; the less active fields are included in alternate cycles. (See inside back cover.)

Each issue is organized by a committee of AERA members, specialists in the issue's topic, who work under the leadership of a chairman chosen by the editor with the advice of the Editorial Board. The chairman develops the plan for the issue with the advice of his committee and the editor, and, with their aid, invites specialists to contribute chapters. Contributors are chosen for their particular competency.



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# REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

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Volume XXX, No. 2

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## Guidance and Counseling

Reviews the literature for the three-year period since the issuance of  
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## INTRODUCTION

**T**his issue of the **REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH** is the tenth concerned with guidance and counseling. Significantly, it is the first joint effort of the American Educational Research Association and the American Personnel and Guidance Association.

With only one or two exceptions, topics for this issue are similar to those of the issue of April 1957. A chapter on the use of appraisal data—primarily the use of test results by the counselor—is again included. Although most research on educational and psychological measurement is covered in a separate issue, it seemed only logical to review that research here which has special application to the counseling function. Guidance activities at the elementary-school level and the guidance role of the teacher generally, although not emphasized by chapter headings, are provided coverage commensurate with their recognized importance.

Contributors stressed the need for more research. The reasons for their exhortations are obvious but need underscoring. It is clear that the profession has many unanswered questions. Furthermore, the national spotlight has been focused on guidance and counseling activities, and expectations for the productivity of guidance programs in schools have never been higher. Such recognition of the importance of guidance and counseling is heart-warming, but permanent gains in acceptance can only be consolidated by means of increased research. Each counselor and personnel worker has a personal stake in "operation research." He also has an obligation to share through publication the results of his research efforts.

The chairman wishes to express appreciation to the planning committee and to the additional contributors who wrote the various chapters.

EDWARD C. ROEBER, *Chairman*  
*Joint AERA-APGA Committee on Guidance and Counseling*

## CHAPTER I

### The Philosophical Foundations of Guidance and Personnel Work

WILLIAM D. WILKINS and BARBARA J. PERLMUTTER

**P**HILOSOPHY undertakes to study the general principles in a field of knowledge. For the purposes of this review, the term *philosophy of guidance* is construed as embracing philosophical and theoretical rationales fundamental to guidance services. In terms of this definition, there exists a plethora of books on guidance methods and services, but there are almost no books that deal with theory; articles on the philosophy of guidance are outnumbered 30 to 1 by articles on methods and procedures. There is, nevertheless, some material in journals on the philosophical and theoretical foundations of guidance.

This review makes no reference to dissertations, because the philosophy of guidance is a subject that appears to have been wholly neglected by doctoral researchers. That fact supports the statement that there are many practitioners in the field of guidance, but few philosophers.

#### Some Philosophical Bases of Guidance

One of the serious examinations of the point of view of persons in the field of guidance and personnel work was contributed by Wrenn (38). Though he modestly set himself forth as "only a philosophical amateur," his discussion of the philosophical and psychological bases of personnel services in education was a unique contribution. It was a serious indictment in that his survey of the literature led him to these conclusions: (a) authors make many philosophical and psychological assumptions, both explicit and implicit, but usually neither examine nor test them; (b) few authors pretend to possess a consistently operating philosophy or a systematic psychological point of view. From the editor of the *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, this is a serious charge. The senior author of this chapter concurs, not only on the basis of the present review, but also on the basis of experience gained throughout his years as editor of the *Personnel and Guidance Journal*.

Wrenn (38:78) also saw need for the personnel worker to "study the differences that may exist between the philosophical and psychological concepts involved in the *establishment* of his educational function and those that are apparently utilized in the *practice* of his work." He pictured the counselor as a product of his past academic and cultural experience, the base modified by his accumulated psychological knowledge, his continuing experiences, and his present values. He saw the need for each

personnel worker to work hard to establish an integration of aims and procedures.

Wrenn considered the main stream of personnel work henceforth as being formed by the two converging streams of philosophical and psychological understanding. He summarized it (38:79-80) as follows: "To say that the science of psychology cannot remain apart from the world of ends and values is not to say that it should blend its methods or lose its distinctiveness. It is of the utmost importance, however, that knowledge of man's *behavior* be seen within the framework of the *meaning of his existence* in the universe."

### Empiricism

Some of the roots of psychology were originally in philosophy. As it grew to be a discipline in its own right, it sought to identify more and more with science. This transition emphasized empiricism. The literature continues to emphasize this approach, although there are at times signs of uncertainty. Walters (34), in a thoughtful paper in which he considered the disciplines of metaphysics, religion, and psychotherapy, discussed psychology's empirical rigidity. He noted that the empirical viewpoint was developed to secure recognition of psychology as a science, and that it is being modified as the field matures. In the light of this article, one might note Bordin's statement (4) that we must retain a "hardheaded empiricism." Bordin outlined his theory of personality development, an eclectic synthesis of many psychological theories, primarily the empirical. Mowrer (14) reappraised some of the philosophical premises on which contemporary psychotherapy, counseling, and diagnosis are predicated. He dwelt at length upon psychology's preoccupation with mind as a servant of the body, particularly as treated in Freudian psychology, and explored the meaning of the reversal of this relationship for counseling and the significance of the problem for religious thought.

### Theories of Personality

Nosal (19), relating various theories of personality to philosophical problems, encouraged research in the philosophical (especially the metaphysical) bases of guidance and of the practice of psychology. Wrenn (40), in a sage commentary on 65 references, discussed the status and role of the school counselor and found his status fairly secure. He noted that the counselor's loyalty is sometimes split between his desire to help the counselee and his need to conform to the demands of society. Sensitivity to a simple creed of human relations was perceived as insufficient to the resolution of this conflict, which must be sought in an active involvement in the search for truth and the highest religious values involved in the counseling relationship. He concluded with a brief note on what

one might designate as the religious or ethical implications of personnel work. Dugan (6) edited two essays in which Carl Rogers and E. G. Williamson brought their thinking up to date on various philosophical and psychological issues inherent in counseling.

Aspects of the counselor's personal philosophy and personality were emphasized in a number of writings. Tyler's rather intriguing article (33) advocated development by each personnel worker of his own view of the universe, his own theory of personality, and his own style of counseling from a study of physiological and psychological laboratory research; psychoanalysis; the social disciplines of anthropology, sociology, and personnel classification; and philosophy and religion.

### Values

Williamson (36) discussed the role of values in counseling, arguing that counseling cannot be independent of values and that counselors can help to "teach counselees how to understand more clearly their own value orientation and how to guide their behavior more rationally and consistently in terms of the standards they have chosen." Patterson (22) contended that a counselor must recognize that his moral attitudes and values enter into counseling. In his textbook, Patterson (21) dealt with theoretical analysis of the therapeutic relationship. Phenomenological theory and client-centered therapy were given preference and precedence. He saw the goal of psychotherapy as a possible independence.

Arbuckle (2) stated that many philosophical issues in counseling are of a realistic and down-to-earth nature. Thus, a real problem for the counselor is the precept, "Know thyself." He cited four allied problems (the effect of the counselor's religious orientation on his work, the effect of his view of the nature of man on his counseling method, his responsibility to counselee and society, and effective counselor education) and concluded that the counselor must have a defined philosophy of life in order to fulfill himself and his role in the counseling situation. Stroup (30) contended that personnel workers in the field of student counseling have, in the past, been relatively unconcerned with, and inactive in, formulating and extending theory. He believed that this is so because counselors are pushed into practical corners and have had, therefore, to borrow many of their theoretical constructs from other disciplines. In a symposium, Durnall, Moynihan, and Wrenn (7) evaluated the role of religious and moral values in counseling.

Hagmaier and Gleason (10), in a wise and compassionate book, attempted to synthesize Roman Catholic doctrine and practice with the insights of depth psychology. Braceland and Curran and others had previously worked in this theoretical area and had made real contributions; Hagmaier and Gleason combined a realistic spiritual approach with modern psychiatric approaches in a practical way. They dealt throughout with

such difficult problems as alcoholism, masturbation, homosexuality, and scrupulosity. This truly significant work has wide application outside Roman Catholic circles.

Rogers (27) set forth his philosophy on the nature of man and its relationship to counseling. Moynihan (15) contended that guidance workers, as judged by recent writings, are not explicit in the philosophy underlying their work. He saw a movement toward a development of more precise theoretical positions as a result of the influence of psychology and sociology and predicted that this trend will be more amply reflected henceforth.

### Theories Related to the Guidance Process

Significant additions to theory were made in areas where discussion of practice is the normal theme. In his study of Vassar College, Sanford (29) discussed growth trends and related them to the commonly stated aims of liberal education. He predicted that knowledge of personality development in late adolescence will be applied in the colleges to bring behavior under more conscious control. Mueller (16) undertook the difficult task of setting up hypotheses for a theory of campus discipline. Pepinsky (23) discussed the tendency of the personnel worker in colleges to think that he knows what is "good" for the student, independently of the views of his professional colleagues and their work. He suggested that more research on the expectations and productivity of college students might temper the viewpoint of personnel workers or, at least, present some evidence for their beliefs.

Kitson (13) stressed the need to move from the "vaporous and elusive components of mind" to a study of vocational behavior. Two contributions to the understanding of vocational development and adjustment were those of Super (31) and Roe (25). Both books offer theoretical concepts which will certainly influence research. Super evaluated the place of work in the life span and discussed his theory of vocational development. He linked the processes of vocational choice and adjustment to the self-concept, which is initiated through a person's identification with people around him and is influenced by his perception of his success and failure in trying roles and by the satisfactions and dissatisfactions he experiences. Super developed this theory through his work with the Career Pattern Study and in several books, and the present work emphasized the developmental aspects of vocational behavior. Putting emphasis upon sociological knowledge of career patterns and upon psychological processes of job choice, Super is exempt from the aforementioned indictment of those who work without a systematic psychological point of view. Roe presented a summary of information in the area of psychology of occupations and her theory of occupational choice.

In a series of eight articles, Samler and others (28) discussed basic approaches to mental health, making a needed contribution to theory in

the personnel field. They described several programs and their settings; in each article methods of countering certain trends of our times are discussed.

### **Points of View About the Interpersonal Relationships of Counselors**

The implications of relationships of the counselor to others were stressed. What rationale will place the counselor in an acceptable light for those who can make use of his guidance—students, parents, teachers, and administrators? An answer is not readily available, but several authors contributed to a further understanding of interpersonal relationships of the counselor. Among them, Rogers (26) discussed the nature of the relationship between counselor and client; and the inner, or subjective, viewpoint of the counselor. He speculated that the counselor can create relationships only in terms of the growth achieved in his living.

According to Tompkins (32), counselors must understand what they are trying to do, educate others as to their duties, and avoid taking themselves too seriously; he stated that many times counselors neglect to apply to their own lives principles known to contribute to sound mental health. Froehlich (8), believing counselors too preoccupied with effecting change in their clients, proposed that they let counselees be more active, self-directed, and self-determined. Nordberg (18) contended that the goal of psychological integration is unsatisfactory as a sole criterion for counseling. He proposed reality as the criterion and as the best integration factor. Fromm (9), discussing self-discipline as a necessary part of adjustment for the student and the need to provide a school program conducive to learning self-control, believed counselors can help educate teachers to adopt a guidance point of view in understanding the child and his problem. Weitz (35) discussed the influence of the personality structure of the counseling participants and the way it is symbolized in the speech of the interview. Wrenn (39) saw the self-concept of the client emerging as a significant factor in the counseling process and as an important variable in the evaluation of counseling. The total impact of their relationships with the counselor upon the users of guidance and personnel services may be difficult to assess; yet this relationship, in the minds of some authorities, can help the development of self-direction, independence, and maturity—goals which are inherently essential to adulthood in a democratic society.

### **The Relationship of Guidance and Education**

During the period of this review, with physical and moral survival at stake, many nonprofessionals urged that more attention be given to education, especially the meeting of children's needs, and the utilization of



all human resources. Four statements interpreted the climate of attitudes. Reuther (24) pointed to the continual crisis which leads to so much greater expenditure on the national military establishment than on education. Benjamin (3) lamented our concern as a nation for material things and our lack of interest in education, prevention of delinquency, and salvaging human resources. The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association (17) recommended that *all* prospective teachers take courses in the philosophy and methods of guidance, psychology, and mental health and that *all* schools have staff personnel with special training in guidance. Wolfe (37) related guidance to evolving educational policies, paying particular attention to better counseling methods, fuller use of potentialities, and diversity of educational standards.

Guidance and personnel workers were aware of the need to relate educational practices to a guidance and personnel point of view. Brown (5) contended that, if teachers adopt more guidance practices, they will come closer to realizing their objectives as teachers. He also stated that, as teachers and guidance people work together, teachers themselves become guidance workers and provide better than ever for the total development of individuals in their classes. Hiltner (11) stated that counseling is education insofar as the student probes his inner self to acquire a new perspective.

Owen (20), who stated that counseling in America is an academic fad to the extreme, was a dissident voice. He contended that much that passes for counseling in higher education today is a waste of time. He did not advocate doing away with the entire system but urged a new emphasis. He suggested that students be told from the start that they will have to work, and work hard, to stay in college. One wonders how typical his viewpoint is among college personnel.

Adams (1) stressed the need to re-examine the articulation of programs in elementary, secondary, and higher education. He maintained that the danger of extreme diversity in education can be lessened by the widespread availability of information, adequate counseling of students, and effective relationships among institutions concerned with education. Hutson (12) defined the function of guidance: to accomplish the distribution of students among educational and vocational opportunities and to bring about the adjustment of the individual to facilitate maximum development. He concluded that guidance is important because it gives the administrator a framework by which he can judge his program.

### Summary

Recent books and articles about personnel work show little evidence of a considered philosophical position or psychological point of view. A basic philosophy is implied in some, but explicit in few. There is a real need to develop general principles and a theoretical foundation.



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## CHAPTER II

### The Organization and Administration of Guidance Services

WILLIS E. DUGAN

**R**ESearch in organization and administration of guidance services continues to be scanty. Previous reviews have noted the paucity of substantial research relating to problems of guidance policy, staff qualifications and relationships, budget, facilities, and counselor duties. Studies during the last three years were predominantly survey and descriptive, rather than experimental. Those reviewed in this chapter may reveal some needs for research relating to organization and help to stimulate investigation.

#### Impact of National Developments

Guidance during the last two decades has been interpreted as encouragement of youth's development in terms of a basic concern about individual differences and as active assistance to youth in making appropriate adjustments to personal, educational, and vocational needs and problems. In short, guidance services have aimed primarily at self-realization of the individual. This fundamental meaning of guidance in practice has not changed. However, it is obvious that in the current national scene, guidance, more than ever before, has come to mean early identification of talent, motivation of talent, and assistance to all youth in attainment of their fullest possible potential. Now, if ever, schools have the support of the public for development and improvement of organized programs of guidance services, and they are looked to to accomplish this goal.

Marked acceleration in the growth of organized guidance services in the schools reflected the influence of developments on a national level and concern for full utilization of human resources. Thoughtful policy statements by prominent educational organizations, scientific groups, and lay conferences supported extension and improvement of guidance services at both elementary- and secondary-school levels. Wolfe (47) urged the necessity for educational services to keep pace with rapid scientific and technological advancements, if full utilization of human talents is to be achieved.

Provisions of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 affirmed national support of more highly organized guidance services. Recognizing the importance of nationwide improvements in school guidance programs, Derthick (15) defined the urgency of our nation's concern about maximum development of the talent of our youth and pointed out the avenues of federal support available for organization and improvement of local pro-

grams of testing and counseling. Stressing a sometimes forgotten source of manpower, Beilin (6) identified the imperative need to facilitate through guidance the identification and upward movement of talent from lower socioeconomic groups. Wrenn (48) expressed the increasingly accepted belief that guidance services must focus upon the normal developmental needs of children and seek, not merely to correct deficiencies, but also to develop talent.

As part of his report on American secondary schools, Conant (13) recommended that counseling be started in the elementary school and that it be closely articulated with a secondary-school program which provides at least one full-time counselor for every 250-300 students. A report on *Conferences on Testing and Counseling* (3), sponsored by the American Association for the Advancement of Science, stressed the need for improved programs and presented some conditions essential for effective testing and counseling services.

### **Administrative Responsibility and Support**

Expansion of staff for specialized guidance and psychological services has posed new problems in organization and co-ordination. Surveying 432 public high schools in 48 states, McQuinn (30) examined major handicaps affecting the organization and administration of guidance services. He found that about one-third of the schools had no guidance program and many others had only a limited program. Bad as these results appear, they still seem overly positive in light of the hodgepodge of activities which is so frequently called a guidance program. Reporting a survey of organization among 308 guidance specialists in 45 states, Keppers (25) indicated the importance of (a) qualified personnel; (b) teamwork among school staff, pupils, and community in over-all planning; (c) adequate ratio of counselors to students; and (d) flexibility in organization to meet distinctiveness in school settings and variations in pupil needs.

In a more restricted geographical area, Kuhn (26) examined the functions of guidance directors in 25 county high schools by means of personal interviews with 109 principals, counselors, teachers, and directors of guidance. Differences in functions were attributed in part to lack of agreement within the administrative and teaching staffs of the high schools as to what guidance services should accomplish. Basic factors and dimensions within the school and community which aid in the determination of adequate organizational procedures were described by Farwell and Peters (18). The significant role of the school administrator was emphasized by Hatch and Steffire (22), who described essential decisions which must be made about staffing, budget, facilities, and staff relationships. Peters (34) presented some fundamental questions which administrators should consider in attempting to appraise the nature and quality of the school guidance program.

These surveys and opinions reflected the complex problems inherent in organizing and co-ordinating effective guidance programs. Thus far, the organization of a guidance program has been too dependent upon an "educated" guess; it will probably remain so until counselors and guidance workers examine the quality of their products in light of goals and procedures of the programs.

The development of guidance services at the elementary-school level and their co-ordination with the total guidance program continued to be discussed. According to Cottingham (14), elementary-school guidance is a new frontier, particularly in respect to the pattern of organization and function appropriate to this level. Articulation between elementary- and secondary-school guidance programs clearly demands administrative leadership and careful investigation of practices.

Need for articulation was also stressed by Miniclier and Curtis (31), who pointed out the concern of school administrators with new approaches to co-ordination of a fuller range of elementary- and secondary-school guidance services. Two surveys yielded interesting hypotheses. Smith (37) found that 93 percent of a small sample of elementary-school teachers believed guidance workers to be needed in the elementary school. Less agreement was found among the teachers about the primary functions of such specialists. In a stratified sample of elementary schools in Los Angeles County, Halverson (21) examined the organization and administration of guidance services on the basis of evaluative criteria developed by a survey of the literature. General principles of organization and administration were seen to be utilized, but inadequacies were noted in facilities and in numbers of qualified personnel. Although logic is on the side of extending the guidance program to elementary schools, the goals and *modus operandi* remain unclear.

In a few instances state leadership has been an important factor in the development of local programs. Although more than one-half of the 45 states reporting indicated a shortage of trained guidance personnel, Weitz (43) found strong reservations concerning the employment of guidance workers who had not been prepared as teachers. Acree and Marquis (1) reported on two surveys in Tennessee, separated by a three-year interval in order to determine growth in guidance programs. The sampling of schools was small, but the study revealed that guidance programs were few and that little development occurred from 1952 to 1955.

Two other studies of state and local programs suggested substantial recent growth. While surveying Kansas public-school counselors' professional qualifications and experience, Baird (5) examined administrators' reports on administrative bases for guidance programs in operation. Small schools appeared to have less adequate programs. Pope (35) traced the growth and development of guidance services in North Carolina and found marked growth indicated by the fact that nearly two-thirds of the high schools reported that they had counselors in 1953-54, as compared to one-fourth in 1939.

The problem of maintaining both quality and quantity of counselors was discussed by Nugent (32), who examined the status of guidance programs and of counselors in white public high schools of Louisiana and saw need for additional qualified personnel. His findings could probably be duplicated in many states. The explosion in school population will only aggravate the personnel problem. The question of ersatz counselors will increasingly haunt state educational leaders.

Facilities, budget, and resources for guidance services received little attention, even through survey research. An exception was Parker's survey (33) in which the opinions of school principals, counselors, instructors of counselors, and state guidance supervisors were sought concerning the location of the guidance offices within the school plant, particularly in relation to the main administrative office. Responses from more than 250 respondents in 19 states of the North Central region revealed that counselors and counselor-educators were in agreement in favoring distinct separation of guidance offices from administrative offices. Principals favored a closer physical relationship for such offices.

Hoyt and Laughary (24) investigated counselors' acquaintance with, and utilization of, referral resources. Their data revealed that counselors, particularly those in rural areas and those with little training, were not making adequate use of referral sources available to them. Good referrals require an abundance of time and energy, as well as adequate preparation of counselors. Schools served by counselors without sufficient released time, without a knowledge of resources, or without skill in bringing about good referrals, cannot meet the needs of pupils who could profit from community or state psychological services or other resources.

For many years the professional literature has been filled with suggestions regarding adequate cumulative records. Examining the status and extent of permanent cumulative records in selected Missouri school districts, Looby (27) found that, although progress had been achieved, more was needed. The results of Looby's survey emphasize once again the importance of special provisions, such as adequate clerical assistance, for the development of adequate records.

It is startling to find so few studies on facilities, budget, and resources. Is it thought not respectable to report such studies? Or is the reason a change in the interests of researchers as the profession matures?

### **Duties and Responsibilities of Counselors**

Counselors on the job and graduate faculties concerned with the preparation of counselors expressed growing concern that there should be clearer delineation of the functions and responsibilities of counselors. Many influences, including the school's setting, expectations of administrators, preferences of counselors, and needs of pupils, determine apportionment of the counselor's time. In a review of the literature related to



status and functions of the counselor, Wrenn (49) carefully analyzed developing trends and provided a clearer delineation of basic issues in the counselor's work and relationships. In addition to presenting other conclusive data, Wrenn documented the assumption that counseling has "fairly secure status." He pointed to the fact that such status increases the profession's vulnerability unless it clarifies its position on some basic points, such as counseling versus psychotherapy, the counselor as a specialist and as a general educator, the counselor's personal self and professional self, and the counselor's loyalty to the individual client and to society. Wrenn's synthesis of the issues was one of the most helpful reviews.

A few studies explored the counselor's functions. Purcell (36) examined by questionnaire the duties of 106 counselors in a centralized area, and found that: (a) 71 percent were employed full time; (b) the median load was between 500 and 599 pupils; (c) individual counseling was a priority duty; (d) 55 percent were responsible for actual assignment of pupils to particular class sections; (e) 64 percent counseled on chronic attendance problems; and (f) 75 percent administered tests. Tennyson (42) studied the use of time by 152 certified counselors throughout Missouri. His data revealed interesting differences between how counselors actually allocated their time and how they would prefer to utilize it. Significant differences were found in several spheres: counselors expressed a desire to allocate less time for assistance in administration and dissemination of occupational information; they wished more time for follow-up services and research.

Allard (2) analyzed the activities in which 191 certified counselors were engaged and the extent to which six selected factors were related to these activities. He concluded that the ratio of counselors to students was too small to permit individual counseling.

A much neglected function of counselors on the job has been identified as research. Counselors perceive the need for more attention to be given to research and service studies (42), but Dyer's survey (17), seeking evidence to emphasize the need for counselors to develop local norms and prediction studies for use in counseling, showed clearly the small amount of prediction research done by counselors. It is evident that research cannot be viewed as an extracurricular counseling activity. Education programs for counselors will have to develop research skills necessary, at least, for research in connection with their day-to-day work. In addition, administrators will have to recognize research as an essential function of the counselor and provide time for this purpose.

Other survey results demonstrated the active role of counselors in clerical and administrative work. Studies of this kind, obtaining data about spheres of work in which counselors are expected to be active, would perform a significant service in clarifying conditions and functions which reduce the counselor's use of time in professional work.

Houghton (23) investigated the counselor's role as perceived by 2690 seniors, 729 teachers, 39 administrators, and 53 counselors in 19 public

high schools. The four groups perceived the counselor's role similarly only in the academic area. Interesting variations in perceptions of the counselor's role were found in schools of different types and different geographical locations. Stewart (40) outlined objectives and rights for counselors.

Functions of city-wide directors of guidance were studied by MacDonnell (29). His survey of job analyses of 200 city-wide directors of guidance in 40 states attempted to determine characteristic functions. Directors were asked to assign varying degrees of essentiality to their duties. The analysis revealed that much similarity of basic functions existed in cities of all sizes. Directors did not want to be administrators exclusively; they believed interviews (for counseling or other purposes) with teachers, parents, and counselors to be essential.

It was also encouraging to see some research related to functions of guidance at the elementary-school level. Bosdell (9) studied guidance responsibilities as perceived by elementary-school personnel and related their perceptions to personality needs as measured by the *Edwards Personal Preference Schedule*. The study indicated that job title, more than personality needs, was related to the respondents' assignment of responsibility for guidance services.

There is need for more studies which deal with perceptual differences concerning responsibility for guidance among counselors, teachers, administrators, pupils, and the public at large; equally important are experiments which might developmentally resolve the most critical differences.

### Instructional Relationships in Guidance

Writings continue to stress the role of the classroom teacher in guidance. Characteristic of this emphasis is Arbuckle's generally accepted contention (4) that a teacher, who is concerned with children, their behavior, and the interaction of these children with their environment, is, in effect, a guidance worker. Willis (46), Gordon (20), and McCabe (28) support the view that the classroom teacher is an integral part of the total program of guidance services. In a study restricted by the size of the sample, Williams (45) found that teachers accept guidance concepts. Interviews with 94 teachers in six elementary schools elicited responses to 15 guidance principles and problem situations to which they were applicable; results showed acceptance of guidance concepts by the teachers, but lack of the preparation and understandings needed for competency in guidance. Stewart (41), studying certain factors influencing participation of classroom teachers in guidance programs and their attitudes toward them, found that teachers do not accept and participate in guidance programs to the same degree. The attitudes of teachers toward adopting an active role in guidance programs remains a fertile area for research. What kind of teacher refuses to help better meet the needs of pupils?



If teachers accept an active role (apparently most do) in guidance programs, many still have to develop adequate understandings and skills. The reasonableness of this assumption was demonstrated by Gilliam (19), who studied beginning teachers in terms of their professional preparation, feeling of adequacy, and performance in rendering guidance services. They were found best prepared with regard to understanding individual differences and philosophy of guidance, and least well prepared in the realm of counseling. On the other hand, when teachers become aware of pupil problems, they seem able to make some appropriate adjustments in the climate of the classroom. For example, Spivak (39), using experimental and control groups of seventh-grade pupils, sought to ascertain the effect of a teacher's knowledge of pupils' problems upon reduction in problems reported by the same pupils four months later. Evidence of reduction obtained may have limitations resulting from the small size of the sample.

The question of how to help teachers develop guidance understandings and skills was explored by Clarke (11), Sorenson and Beals (38), and Carey (10). Without controlled experimentation, Clarke (11) reported a technique, described as the *Attitude Consistency Study*, for increasing the effectiveness of teachers and counselors in identifying children who need help—thereby utilizing more effectively the services of specialized psychological staff. The value of counselor-education courses for teachers was demonstrated by Sorenson and Beals (38), who examined the guidance practices of 500 homeroom teachers in junior high schools. Teachers in this group who had at least nine semester hours of preparation in the field of counseling tended to use various guidance tools and techniques more than did those teachers without such professional training for guidance work. Using an experimental design, Carey (10) examined two methods for securing teamwork among teachers, guidance specialists, and referral services in child-study phases of individual guidance. The method developed by teachers through inservice educational activities appeared more successful than a method developed mainly by guidance specialists and administrators. This result is certainly consistent with learning theory.

Several articles aimed to assist teachers in fulfilling their functions in the field of guidance. The following examples illustrate the variety of available tools. Doi (16) developed a self-rating checklist to help teachers identify ways in which they contribute to guidance services. Berry (8) provided helpful aids for the classroom English teacher who seeks to integrate guidance units and activities in the subject-matter program. Coleman (12) advanced methods for assisting teachers and counselors in the use of test results. Berdie and others (7) compiled helpful normative data and principles as an aid to the use of test data in counseling. White (44) analyzed the content and format of 114 student handbooks to establish essential characteristics. Out of a variety of critical reactions, several positive recommendations were derived for development of such handbooks as effective guidance aids.

Although none of the research in this section on instructional relationships was earth-shaking in its implications, it demonstrated a persistent interest. There is little doubt that teachers are considered essential to the proper functioning of guidance programs. The question of how to enable them to develop the necessary understandings and skills is still unanswered.

### Summary

Because national and local expectations are so high with respect to outcomes, guidance programs have reached a critical point in their development as mature and accepted services in schools. Rapid expansion has occurred, not only in the addition of guidance staff, but also in the search for effective means of organizing and co-ordinating specialized guidance services. The basic problems of organization, co-ordination, functions and relationships of various staff members, physical facilities, and resources need further investigation. Counselor-education programs in graduate schools and counselors on the job must be held responsible for the extension of research on these problems. If the profession can produce organizational results and develop the necessary pool of research, the past era will be known as the Stone Age of guidance history.

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## CHAPTER III

### The Selection, Preparation, and Professionalization of Guidance and Personnel Workers

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**S**URPRISINGLY little of the writing on guidance and personnel work in educational institutions dealt with the profession as such. Analysis of the articles in the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* (9) for a five-year period (1952-57) revealed that, of 411 general articles, 14 were concerned with "counselor training." Of the 136 articles classified as "research," only two dealt with counselor education. The present reviewers identified 17 articles in the same journal, from 1956 to 1959, as dealing with counselor education, seven of them classifiable as research.

In the last three years, as in earlier periods (73), the majority of published investigations were status studies. Basic, longitudinal research on the selection, education, and subsequent effectiveness of guidance and personnel workers was not found. Research by doctoral students in the universities was frequently not published. An effort to locate such research appropriate to this chapter disclosed 16 theses written in the last three years unpublished in any form except as abstracts. Several factual reports were available only in mimeographed form. Will current shortages of guidance and personnel workers prompt a surge of better research and more publication regarding the selection, education, and professionalization of such workers?

#### Selection of Guidance and Personnel Workers

Careful selection of counselors and other personnel workers is essential. This assertion was reiterated by professional committees (3, 4), by personnel administrators (77), and by counselor-educators (5, 36, 55, 88, 90). Most of the attention given this question was primarily concerned with acceptance of candidates for graduate study in counseling. Some studies were made of counselors in training, which threw light upon the complexity of the problem of sifting out the least competent. Little attention was given to the question of how people decided, in the first place, to seek graduate education in guidance and personnel; nothing was published during the last three years on the selective placement of persons in this field. These last two aspects of the selection process were reported as of considerable concern to counselor-educators in a survey of 30 Midwestern educational institutions (34).

\* Assisted by Robert W. Schmeding.

### Survey of Selection Procedures

Santavicca (65) received information from 170 institutions, 129 of which offered graduate courses in counseling. The predominant emphasis in selection was upon academic competence, as judged by undergraduate record and as measured by tests. Teaching experience, work experience, and personal adjustment (as judged by interviews, letters from employers, rating scales, and staff judgments) were also considered by more than half of the institutions training counselors. Miller (53) surveyed 36 Mid-western universities and discovered little use of tests in selection of trainees. He asked for information regarding an approach to selection that has received increasing attention, the use of self-selection devices and techniques. The chief means of self-selection employed was the practicum, through which trainees were helped to achieve greater self-understanding and clarity of goals. Group discussion and interaction among group members, participation in research, and interviews by staff members were also reported as used for this purpose.

MacMinn and Ross (52) found that training institutions denied admission to 17 percent of applicants for the master's degree and 44 percent of applicants for the doctor's degree. Although research was done on the characteristics and competencies of counselor trainees, this research seems not to have changed selection procedures of universities. Surveys of current practice disclosed essentially the same practices to be followed as were reported in past years.

### Sources of Guidance and Personnel Workers

It was generally assumed that people who become guidance and personnel workers come chiefly from the ranks of the teaching profession and largely from the schools where they become counselors (35). Stevens and Hoppock (67) found verification of this assumption in their survey of large high schools and colleges. Their survey included, however, only the 50 largest cities, the 50 largest universities, 50 private agencies, and 50 manufacturing concerns. The manufacturing concerns also drew their personnel workers chiefly from within their organizations. Goedeke (28) surveyed recruiting practices in school systems of 52 large cities, with results similar to those of Stevens and Hoppock. It is not known to what extent similar practice obtains in medium-sized and smaller schools. If such practice is widespread, it is not surprising that little research has been reported on selective criteria used by school administrators. Hulslander and Scholl (38) canvassed the opinions of high-school and elementary-school principals regarding desirable qualifications for the counselor. These administrators wanted counselors with teaching experience, and a considerable number of them preferred experience within their own school systems.



### Personal Characteristics of Counselors

The search for a characteristic personality pattern deemed desirable in counselors followed much the same path as the earlier search for a desirable personality pattern for teachers. Enthusiastic search for the necessary traits was followed by skepticism, as evaluation of the effectiveness of the practitioner proved to be very difficult. There continues to be a good deal written about what the guidance and personnel worker should be like. Unlike the earlier writings, which often presented extensive trait lists, the more recent focused attention on the total personality of the counselor.

Hitchcock (35), Wrenn (90), Tooker (77), and Hobbs (36) stressed the importance of the general personality pattern of the counselor, cautioning that we have neither a clear picture of what this pattern should be nor effective devices for estimating the effective potential of any prospective counselor. Appropriate training, aptitudes, temperament, interests, physical attributes, and working conditions for the school counselor were estimated in the *Estimates of Worker Trait Requirements* (79). Patterson (58) reported an extensive study involving the testing of trainees in rehabilitation counseling in 19 institutions. The *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory* (MMPI), the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank*, the *Miller Analogies Test*, the *Kerr-Speroff Empathy Test*, and the *Edwards Personal Preference Schedule* were administered to from 143 to 190 trainees. The results were reported in some detail and provided a useful comparative body of data.

Hoffman's ingenious analysis (37) of counselors' subroles by means of 165 interviews clearly pointed up one of the reasons that a standardized personality pattern for the effective counselor was probably a will-o'-the-wisp, namely, the amazing variety of behaviors used by the counselor. Studies of guidance workers' jobs showed that this work was also highly varied and far from standardized. Vassallo (81) surveyed secondary-school guidance workers in the mid-Atlantic area. Tennyson (76) carefully analyzed how Missouri counselors spent their time. Purcell (61) asked a group of Long Island counselors to report their duties. Wendorf (85) surveyed the school guidance workers in Ohio. All of these studies provided clear evidence of widely varied duties of guidance workers. It seems safe to assume, therefore, that the kinds of characteristics required—though the merit of "personality" is not to be denied—continue to be difficult to standardize.

Warnath (82) pointed out that the kinds of characteristics valued in the training setting were not always the same as those needed on the job later. Hedahl (32) compared the expectations of counselors and their administrative superiors in three university counseling centers with regard to the counselor's role. She found general agreement both between the counselors and their administrators and among the three administrators. At least we may feel encouraged to believe that highly trained people usually reach some agreement on what to expect of a counselor.

A survey of the opinions of 300 junior and senior high-school principals in California about the desirable characteristics of guidance workers was reported (47). A list of traits resulted, covering such matters as respect for the individual, freedom from prejudice, faith in human nature, knowledge of self, sense of humor, and a willingness to work beyond the call of duty. A study of the characteristics of counselors in service suggested important considerations for selection. Nelson (56) administered an occupational-characteristics questionnaire, the *Kuder CX*, and the *Allport-Vernon Study of Values* to 362 guidance and personnel workers. Both men and women ranked highest on the *Kuder* social service, literary, and persuasive scales. Counselors tended to rank high on the theoretical, social, and religious scales of the *Allport-Vernon Study of Values* and lower on the economic, political, and aesthetic scales. If this kind of investigation were extended to evaluation of the effectiveness of the workers studied, it would prove useful in the selection of guidance and personnel workers.

Another kind of study threw light upon the problem of selection—attempts to evaluate effectiveness of counseling. For illustration, a small sample of such reports is referred to here. Abeles (1) studied 130 counselor trainees by means of the *Differential Aptitude Tests*, the *Miller Analogies Test*, the *General Aptitude Test Battery*, reading tests, the *MMPI*, and other instruments. The trainees were also rated on effectiveness by judges. Although the trainees differed sharply in some respects, their differences did not relate significantly to rated effectiveness.

Tolerance for ambiguity as measured by the Berkeley questionnaire bore a positive relationship to effectiveness of communication in counseling among trainees (12). Streitfeld (74), however, found no relationship between ratings of present and former doctoral students with regard to their acceptance of self and others and ratings of their effectiveness as psychotherapists. On the other hand, Bandura (8) found a significant negative relationship between anxiety level and ratings of competence among psychotherapists. The Professional Standards and Training Committee of the American College Personnel Association (2) enlisted the assistance of nine counselor-educators, who rated from five to 19 of their former students (a total of 105) on a scale of 18 traits and then evaluated the degree of their success as personnel workers. Though a serious effort was made to control the halo effect, it is hard to believe that the effort was entirely successful. Trait ratings and success ratings correlated significantly.

Two generalizations are warranted from these varied studies of characteristics of counselors: (a) the complexity of both the counseling process and other activities of guidance and personnel workers is too great to expect clear-cut or standardized personality definitions for effective workers; (b) evaluations of effectiveness in counseling under carefully controlled conditions, though they probably cannot provide conclusive evidence regarding traits of counselors in general, will continue to provide suggestive leads to fundamental research that is needed in the field of the



selection of counselors. Berdie (11) outlined a series of conclusions regarding counseling research which indicated that systematic evaluation of the effectiveness of procedures of selection is possible.

### Selection Techniques

Three studies reported the development of instruments of potential usefulness in selecting counselors. A 60-item forced-choice interest test called the *Psychological Activities Interest Record*, devised by Bendig (10), showed some effectiveness in differentiating among the interests of undergraduate psychology students, including interest in counseling. Symonds (75) prepared an educational-interest inventory which has indicated distinct differences between (a) counselors and psychologists and (b) administrators and principals. Koile (45), dealing with the more immediate problem of how to select faculty counselors, administered a professional activity-interest inventory to 500 college teachers and devised a scoring system that effectively discriminated between teachers interested in faculty counseling activities and those with little or no interest in such work.

Serious efforts were made to examine the usefulness, for both selection and training, of group procedures which emphasized self-analysis and growth in clarification of self-understanding. One university developed a self-appraisal course for prospective guidance workers, which was evaluated by Fougner (25). Not only did this course seem to be of material assistance to those who took it, but an analysis of the students' self-appraisals provided data useful for screening future candidates.

Heist (33) utilized a group-therapy experience involving a trained therapist and 24 graduate students in counselor education beyond the master's level. Significant differences were found between the experimental group and a control group with respect to the changes judged to have taken place in the participants. Group interviews were evaluated as a criterion for selection of students by Wilson (89), who used work samples pertinent to the profession for group discussion. A small, consistent corps of faculty rated the candidates' participations and concluded that the behaviors induced were predictive of future counseling success.

### The Preparation of Guidance and Personnel Workers

Guidance and personnel workers for schools and colleges are prepared in many institutions. The Office of Education's latest report (50, 51) showed the graduate courses offered in this field by 240 institutions. Great diversity was shown, one university listing 61 courses. The lack of agreement about what courses prepare personnel workers, which was noted three years ago by Stoughton (73), seemed not to have changed.

Among leaders in counselor education, however, some basic agreement appeared to be developing about the desirable characteristics of prepara-

tion programs. Many supported Derthick's plea (22) for improved quality in counselor education. Lund (46) and Williamson (88) pointed out the great need for counselor education to help candidates achieve clarification of their own values. Perhaps one of the most persistent emphases was that upon the need for counselor education to prepare people who see personnel services as integral to the educational program as a whole. Tooker (77) maintained that the counselor is, first of all, an educator. Feder (24) and Dressel (23) strongly argued for a re-emphasis in counselor education upon developing awareness of the counselor's relations with teachers and of the total educational experience of students. Warnath (82) urged that educators of counselors take cognizance, in training students in research, of the fact that most administrators value counselors more for the number of clients they handle than for their research.

Still another emphasis was upon the need for greater flexibility and creativity in counselor education. Hobbs (36) presented a most readable and convincing argument for broad, creative education for counselors. An equally convincing, though differently presented, plea for this same emphasis came from Williamson (87). Abeles (1) concluded from his analysis of the characteristics and needs of trainees at the University of Texas that flexibility and permissiveness were desirable in training programs. Fear was expressed that boards of divisions of the American Psychological Association place undue restrictions on the creativity of counselor-educators (24). Yates and Schmidt (92) concluded that counselors in training could not develop self-concepts realistically and usefully if their training were not flexibly managed.

### **Current Training Program: Emphases and Recommendations**

The most thorough survey of preparation programs was that done by MacMinn and Ross (52). One hundred and seventy-eight institutions reported offering graduate-degree programs in guidance and personnel. One of the more surprising findings was that fewer than two-thirds of these institutions provided practicum training, although this is generally regarded as crucially necessary in counselor education. This survey dealt, as did Miller (53), chiefly with programs directed through departments of education. Miller, however, found that over 90 percent of the institutions in the Midwest offered either required or optional practicum training.

Sixteen doctoral training programs for guidance and personnel workers in the north central area studied by Wright (91) gave strong emphasis to experience in educational counseling, and all required supervised practicums. People trained in these programs predominantly entered college personnel work.

Systematic analysis of the specific aspects of preparation programs was lacking, though there was some indication that emphasis seemed to be upon the crucial role of the supervised practice experience as central

to a good preparation program. Hill (34) found this was one of the chief concerns of counselor-educators, especially in institutions in which many sought preparation in counseling in the summers, when practicums are hard to provide. Santavicca (65), surveying practicum practices, discovered that adequate practicum offerings tended to increase with size of the institution and that many programs were so new that this phase of the program had not yet been organized.

Kenyon (41) questioned guidance personnel and concluded that one of the valuable kinds of practicum experience is that of camp leadership. Hackney (30), attempting to relate counselor and client variables in the evaluation of counseling, concluded that observation of actual behavior during interviews is essential for the prediction of outcomes of counseling. A study of the opinions of 187 rehabilitation counselors (15) revealed greatest agreement on centering the educational program of counselors around counseling and interviewing rather than testing, medical information, and casework.

Several studies helped to sharpen perceptions of the role of the teacher in guidance and especially to indicate training needs of teachers who were to assume responsibilities in personnel work. Campbell (14) made a detailed analysis of the guidance work of teachers of vocational agriculture; his report on their guidance activities suggested in some detail the kinds of guidance training they need. Jenson's study (39) of how high-school students felt about counseling help indicated that students preferred the help of counselors to that of teachers, but that many teachers seemed to have developed counseling skills entirely acceptable to students. He showed differentiations in these skills.

Caravello (16) showed that, though guidance specialists seemed to get somewhat better results than teacher-counselors, the differences were not clear-cut. Counselors and teachers responded similarly to Stewart's questionnaire (72) regarding what should be done for certain types of students. Does this mean that the education of counselors and teachers should be more sharply differentiated, that education of counselors is not effective, or that we are doing well in the guidance education of teachers? Williams (86) surveyed the attitudes toward guidance and the understandings of guidance principles of a sample of elementary-school teachers and concluded that they accepted guidance principles much more than they understood them.

### **Evaluation of Preparation Programs**

Studies evaluating training programs for guidance and personnel workers consisted mostly in the collection of evaluative opinions. Olshansky (57) surveyed 18 training programs for rehabilitation counselors and criticized them for their strong emphasis upon psychological training. Three hundred school principals in California, who were asked for their

opinions of counselor education, placed strong emphasis upon the need for field experience and intern training (47). The Education and Training Board of the American Psychological Association presented the only set of criteria for training programs published in the last three years (4). Staff criteria for evaluating content, facilities and equipment, and over-all atmosphere were spelled out, but no evidence was adduced to validate the elements that were recommended.

Two studies reported evaluations by graduates of the education program for counselors at Kent State University. Harmon (31) asked graduates to weigh the values of the various courses. Actually, all the courses seemed to have been quite highly valued. Arnold and Hummel's respondents rated the supervised practicum the most valuable experience (6).

A study of dominance of counselors (55) concluded that counselors were not as well trained in interviewing as they should have been. Stewart (70) reported briefly on an interesting kind of in-course evaluation in terms of attitude changes. A counseling seminar was shown to produce significant changes in attitudes.

Nineteen experts helped Davis (21) evaluate a set of criteria for analyzing graduate training programs for personnel work with college students. An intensive analysis was then made of one program. Baker's comparison of counselors and teachers by their reactions to "The Case of Mickey Murphy" suggested still another approach to evaluation of training (7). He showed that guidance workers and teachers can be discriminated by this method.

The report of the Professional Training, Licensing, and Certification Committee of the American Personnel and Guidance Association (3) provided a definitive outline of recommended content for training, which might well be used to help develop evaluative criteria. This report provided useful analysis of the qualitative aspects of supervised work.

Two studies utilizing the critical-incident technique clearly indicated the potential usefulness of this approach to the evaluation of the emphases in training programs. King (42) thus determined requirements for secondary-school counselors, using incidents reported by teachers. Truax (78) gathered critical incidents from guidance workers in small schools. These two studies yielded extensive lists of behaviors of counselors, classified as to areas of service.

### **Inservice Preparation in Guidance and Personnel Work**

Though several informative descriptions of inservice projects were published, there was little research in this field. A questionnaire and interview study of six short-term institutes for rehabilitation counselors in the New York metropolitan area (83) found these to be popular programs and the participants to be pleased with their experiences in them. Kirk (43), attempting to assess the attitudes of counselors in an inservice train-

ing project, found that the counselors changed most in understanding and acceptance of their students, in awareness of the complexities of counseling, and in awareness of their own responsibilities. In another publication on this project (44), she emphasized the devices used to assess the effects of the inservice program. They consisted of an information exercise, a sentence-completion exercise, an attitudes-toward-counseling inventory, and a choice test based on descriptions of counseling situations.

Clearly the field of preparation for guidance and personnel workers has not been thoroughly studied. Research is especially lacking on the effectiveness of programs that emphasize a creative and stimulating role for the counselor, rather than merely meeting on-the-job demands of the school situation. Pepinsky (60) delineated this need.

### **The Professionalization of Guidance and Personnel Workers**

General agreement among guidance and personnel workers that they belong to a profession is evidenced by the growing strength and impact of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Especially noteworthy was the enactment and implementation of Title V, B in the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (17). By recognizing the importance of counselor education, the NDEA re-emphasized that counseling is a profession—that is, it requires unique understandings and skills beyond those needed by teachers in general.

A great deal of concern is expressed about the improvement of the profession, but little research was done bearing on this aim. For example, the recurring assertion that guidance and personnel workers are, first of all, educators (77, 90) needs to be analyzed. No one developed the implications of this concept in terms of research, such as evaluating the roles played by counselors in schools.

Mueller (54) reminded guidance and personnel workers that they lack one of the most important justifications for professional status: convincing answers to questions about the ends sought in counseling, the ends achieved, and evidence that the methods used are truly the most feasible ones. The variety of levels of preparation of guidance workers further complicated these questions. Arbuckle (5) reminded the profession that it has not effectively defined levels of operation or of training.

### **Status of the Profession**

The question of how the profession appears to others was not thoroughly examined. The fact that two recent publications of the federal government (79, 80) provided descriptions of the school counselor suggested that the counselor's function in schools had achieved wider recognition and that

the position had become better defined. There seemed not to have been a clear, consistent, and strictly "professional" view taken of what the duties of guidance workers should be (61, 64, 76, 81, 85). Routine, administrative, and punitive responsibilities were regarded by some of those defining the work of the counselor as appropriate for him to assume. Encouragingly, a study of expectations of highly trained college personnel workers with regard to their role showed a high degree of agreement (32). The duties and expectations of counselors in small colleges where personnel programs had been recently originated were shown to be closely related to teaching duties and not classified uniformly (62).

Psychologists rated rehabilitation counselors and high-school counselors below counseling psychologists in prestige (29). Counseling psychologists were rated below professors of psychology in large universities, and below clinical psychologists. The hierarchies seemed to reflect levels of training.

The idea that the prestige of counselors might be enhanced by raising training requirements was set forth (40). It was also pointedly suggested that the future status of the profession would depend heavily upon the quality of its current services (20). Still another approach was that of seeking to define the rights of school counselors, in part as a means of improving their status (71).

Some pessimism was expressed about the future of the profession. Cowley (19) remarked the tendency to make appointments to key personnel positions for reasons having little to do with preparation for such duties. Feder (24) wrote of the future of the profession as "clouded" because of lack of clarification of ethical standards, failure to define functions, and lack of self-policing. Pepinsky (59) proposed that the American College Personnel Association loosen membership requirements as an aid to wider acceptance and enhanced status.

### **Supply, Demand, and Economic Rewards**

The most comprehensive recent data on supply and demand in the field of counseling and guidance were compiled by MacMinn and Ross (52). Institutions reporting to them indicated demand in excess of supply, although no attempt was made to estimate the possibility of duplication of reports of vacancies. Paradoxically, significant numbers of those who had master's degrees in guidance were not engaged in positions related directly to their training. A 1957 national survey (38) indicated a sizable increase in number of people qualified for high-school guidance positions. Hitchcock (35) drew on several sources of data in concluding that the number of people engaged in secondary-school guidance work was increasing rapidly.

Weitz (84) contended that "many" more qualified persons would be available for school counseling if the requirements of teacher preparation and experience were removed, but did not adduce evidence to support



this contention. He did report opinions of state guidance supervisors to the effect that a shortage of counselors exists in most states.

Stevens and Hoppock (68, 69) reported data from one university's placement department on the number and kinds of positions that exist in the field of counseling. School counselors were paid on a sliding scale related to training and experience and were given an increment beyond the teacher's scale. Purcell (61) showed that school counselors on Long Island were in a salary bracket above that indicated by Stevens and Hoppock's surveys (67, 68, 69). Rosse (63) reported that vocational rehabilitation counselors commanded salaries comparable to those of vocational-disability examiners.

An interesting, but as yet unexplained, aspect of the economic status of the profession was the effect of economic subsidies at the training level. McCully's analysis in the Veterans Administration counselor-training program (48) indicated that subsidies would raise the training level. The annual report of available financial aids for counselor education (18) noted that 142 institutions provided such aids.

### **Certification of School Counselors**

Certification required by state departments of education has been used as one index of level of preparation of guidance workers. The latest Office of Education report on certification (13) showed that 34 states required certification, whereas certification for school counselors was optional in seven states. Fourteen states added training requirements for school counselors after 1951. The nature of the state certification requirements varied widely. It is also to be noted that many school counselors did not hold certificates (40, 85), even in states where certification was supposed to be mandatory.

### **Professional Ethics**

One substantial study of the ethics problem was reported, that of Smith (66). She obtained the reactions of 600 professional members of the National Vocational Guidance Association regarding ethical problems involved in the use of counseling information. She also summarized legal findings from the several states. Thirty-seven states had no law or ruling which permitted the counselor to withhold information received in confidence. An excellent volume on the legal and ethical responsibilities of school personnel (26) unfortunately gave little attention to the responsibilities of the counselor.

Truax (78), studying critical requirements for counselors in small schools, identified a series of critical incidents illustrating what he called "professional responsibility" and "personal responsibility." This constituted, by use of the critical-incident method, a promising means of identify-

ing ethical requirements. A proposed code of ethics in announcing vocational-guidance services to the public was prepared by Gobetz (27).

### Summary

Research on the selection, preparation, and professionalization of guidance and personnel workers is, and has been, disappointingly limited in scope and intensity. One gets the impression that perhaps the most severe handicaps to such research have been: (a) lack of certainty as to ends sought, (b) lack of basic studies evaluating guidance practices, and (c) failure to communicate research findings through professional publication.

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## CHAPTER IV

### The Counseling Function

HERMAN J. PETERS and WILLIAM J. MUELLER

**D**EFINITION of the field of counseling, as distinguished from guidance and psychotherapy, continued during the period covered by this review (4, 46, 54, 56, 59). Two related approaches to definition were observed. One effort to fix boundaries of the counseling field placed it on a continuum according to the degree of affective involvement. In this lies danger that theory becomes the province of the psychotherapist and only surface applications are made by the counselor. A second approach was made in terms of where the interview takes place: in a school, it is guidance; in a counseling center, counseling; in a clinic, psychotherapy. Despite attempts to define counseling as leading to acceptance of one's personality attributes and the best use of them, and to define psychotherapy as efforts toward basic personality change, counselors of all persuasions have not effected a commonality for the meaning of counseling.

The counseling function needs definition for many reasons. Recent attempts in California and in Ohio to enact legislation call for a definition. The impact of counseling and guidance institutes under the National Defense Education Act necessitated some working definitions. Hydra-headed approaches to the problem may result in lessened public approval of the role of counseling in assisting students and youth. English and English (14) observed that "goodness of terminology is not merely statistical; it is psychological and social. Our goals are clarity of thinking and effectiveness of communications. Misleading terminology does not become better by being widely diffused; it merely does greater damage."

The persistent dilemma with regard to terminology is well stated by Peltz (43): "Guidance work may be conducted by homeroom teachers, advisors, or trained counselors, and may involve working with parents as well as with students. The difference between guidance or counseling on the one hand and psychotherapy on the other is a hard one to define precisely. In general, however, it can be said that the former is more apt to be concerned with external situations or factors dealing primarily with conscious material and usually lasting a short time whereas psychotherapy deals with internal conflicts as well as conflicts with the external world, handles unconscious factors as well as conscious material, and is frequently of fairly long duration."

### Theoretical Considerations

No new formulations were found, nor were there any major polemics about directive versus nondirective counseling. Yet, theoretical considera-

tions received their fair share of attention and focused on the total concept of guidance, personality, the counseling process, and counseling in relation to particular psychological and sociological problems.

Beechy (3) developed a theoretical framework of guidance through an analysis of adjustment, individualization, socialization, vocation, and love. His conceptual framework offers a broad sociopsychological screen against which the counselor may project his counseling functions. Looking at the problem somewhat differently, Masserman (34) pointed out the essentials in a large, encompassing, and responsible base for the counseling function in analyzing (a) the maintenance of the scientific prestige, (b) ethical integrity, and (c) social influence of allied professions.

Thorne (55) pointed out the importance of periodic examinations of various theoretical foundations of counseling and discussed psychoanalytically oriented therapies, client-centered counseling, disciplinary counseling, and the semantic impact on counseling. This article is recommended as a provocative stimulus for students and scholars to analyze the similarities of, and differences between, various theoretical bases for counseling. Thorne's view was also expressed by Lewis (30).

Fundamental principles of counseling theory were considered in terms of man's integrating relationship between mind and body (35), clarifying dogma or a set of principles involved in having a theory (4, 5), thinking through one's theory of counseling (60), and counselors' values operative in the helping relationships (19). Patterson (39) argued for a systematic view of counseling theory rather than an eclectic perspective. Various writers emphasized a particular bent in looking at the counseling function, such as the place of limits (18), the therapeutic effort (67), the impact of culture (51), counseling for personal adjustment (33), the vocationally handicapped (32), the emotionally disturbed (40), the interview with emphasis on communication (25), and multiple counseling (12).

Prompted by analysis of the writings on counseling and adolescent development, Peters and Farwell (45) urged a study of principles and procedures in the secondary- and elementary-school settings. They remarked that the following factors may necessitate modification of current counseling theory and procedures when applied to the pupil in the school setting: (a) differential factors of maturation level of pupils, (b) school organization, (c) concept of authority in the school setting, (d) involuntary nature of the counseling process, (e) the kind of limits which may be set on counseling, and (f) the professional education of the counselor. Books on guidance at the elementary-school level gave considerable space to counseling (28, 29), but their material was vague and unsubstantiated by research or theoretical models applicable to the child.

### **The Determinants of the Counseling Process**

The studies in this section are classified according to the variables which the researcher was interested in isolating. Articles that were not strictly



experimental in the sense that they relied heavily on the author's intuition are included, since they differed from others only in the degree to which the author was able to specify and subject his clinical observations to rigid tests of his hypothesis. Studies clustered around (a) the person of the counselee, (b) that of the counselor, and (c) the interaction between counselee and counselor.

### The Counselee

Subsumed under the first heading is a group of studies about counselees' expectations of counseling and satisfaction with counseling. Solely on intuitive grounds, one would expect a strong positive relationship between congruence of counselee-counselor concepts of what counseling ought to be (expectations) and counselee satisfaction. The conflict evident in the studies reported below supports Rogers' statement (50) that the area of client expectations is one of the least understood in the counseling process.

Operating solely within the framework of the counselee, Grigg and Goodstein (21) attempted to evaluate the outcomes of counseling in terms of such evaluations by the counselee of the counseling process itself as his feelings of comfort and his appraisal of the counselor's activity and participation. As defined by response of counselees to two questions about the number of opinions, suggestions, and interpretations that were given by the counselors, counselees seemed to prefer a counselor who was more directive.

Utilizing a sample of high-school seniors, Sonne and Goldman (52) sought to determine whether clients with authoritarian or equalitarian personality structures differed in their responses to client-centered or eclectic counseling. The "unpredicted preference of . . . three groups for the eclectic over the client-centered interview" seemed to be one source of stimulation for a series of critical comments and replies regarding the use of the client's satisfaction as a criterion in evaluating the outcomes of counseling.

Patterson (37), arguing that the counselee's expectations were a function of his social conditioning, questioned the advisability of the counselor's acquiescing to the student's dependency need rather than continuing to work with the counselee toward such an ultimate goal as the counselee's acceptance of responsibility. This same issue recurred in Patterson's recent text (39), and it is clear from the way in which the problem was handled that the author recognized the strength of the cultural learning question involved. Responding to Patterson's study, Goodstein and Grigg (20) contended that, although multiple-criterion measures are necessary, client satisfaction is a valid criterion for evaluating counseling success.

A different point of view, but one affected by the same issue, was presented by Froehlich (17) in a recent summary of studies, principally multiple-counseling research. The general counseling objectives advocated



by Froehlich, as revealed by these studies, were to provide relationships which maximized counselee participation and minimized counselor-centered activities.

Nelson (36) attempted to refine the use of client satisfaction as a variable by examining its relationship to vocational maturity. Results of aptitude tests and inventoried interests constituted the experimental variables with which the criterion variable was correlated, and vocational maturity as defined above was found to be related to reported satisfaction with counseling.

Other studies attempted to relate outcomes of counseling to the personality structure of the counselee. Cartwright (10) applied the *Rorschach Prognostic Rating Scale* to the 13 clients' pretherapy Rorschachs and, with reasonable success, predicted the successful client from response patterns. Utilizing rating scales derived from a pretherapy *Thematic Apperception Test* and a first interview, Kirtner and Cartwright (27) extended this kind of research into a second dimension and found a relationship between the client's personality structure and the length by outcome of the interview. Wrenn (66) reviewed the growing body of research on self-perceptions and interpersonal perceptions, especially as these studies relate to growth through counseling. Cartwright (8) presented an excellent current accounting of research, methodology, and theory construction in client-centered therapy.

Cartwright (9) hypothesized that counseling increases the consistency of the self-concept which one brings to varied situations involving interaction with other persons, that is, the person's "self" would have been enlarged. A Q-sort technique revealed less item variance after therapy. Of special interest are the implications of the finding that for the successfully counseled persons, the increase in consistency came from pretherapy low-relevance items that had changed to high-relevance post-therapy.

Using as a counseling criterion the shift in the discrepancy scores between counselees' self-ratings and such external measures as test and inventory scores, Froehlich (16) found a significant shift in the direction of increased self-knowledge in a counseled group with whom the counselor interpreted test data.

### The Counselor

Other studies were directly concerned with the effects of the counselor's personality, behavior, or training on the outcomes of counseling. Weitz (63) set down security, sensitivity, and objectivity as three personality characteristics that a counselor ought to possess.

According to Weitz, the secure counselor accepts himself and others. His acceptance of others flows from his self-acceptance, and it is the basic stuff on which sensitivity thrives. Lastly, the objective counselor is aware of such distinctions in counseling as those between the person and the norm,

the label and the behavior, the symbol and the object. Similar characteristics were cited by Rogers (49) as the guidelines of a helping relationship.

Operating within the framework of the discussion unit proposed by Robinson (48), Weeks (62) attempted to circumvent the difficulties experienced by Dipboye (11) in classifying counselor style according to the dimensions of previously proposed schemata. In Weeks's system, the style of counselor is plotted against an analysis of the content of the discussion unit in terms of the level of affect involved. A significant finding of the study was that the counselor's style differed between high-affect and moderate- or low-affect discussion units; a wider range of responses was evinced by the counselor at the level of high affective involvement.

Poole (47) compared judgments by counselors and by typescript-readers of the counselor's objectives in counseling and the achievement of these objectives. Apparently the readers and counselors judged consistently in terms of their own interpretations of the goals of the counselor and the achievement of these goals by counselees, but the interesting phenomenon was that these systems were independent. Poole contended that, had she utilized a research design in which evaluation of outcomes had been made solely in terms of readers' judgments of the achievement of counseling goals, she might have concluded that counseling was successful.

Whereas the research has often been directed at the expectations of clients, Truax (57) investigated the expectations that administrators, teachers, counselor trainers, counselors, supervisors, and state directors of guidance have of small-school counselors. Although Truax's completed job analysis revealed a strong emphasis on the counselor's duty to individual students, the study indicated that the counselor is also perceived as a resource person with major school and community responsibilities. King (26) confirmed this concept of the counselor in a study of behaviors used by teachers to differentiate between effective and ineffective counselors. It is worthy of note that the critical-incident technique proposed by Flanagan (15) has been applied in both these studies. In still another instance, this same technique was used by Eilbert (13) as a semantic tool to reclassify the meaning of emotional immaturity.

Brams (7) compared the scores made by a group of counselor-trainees on a *Communication Rating Scale* with their scores on a series of personality and interest inventories. A positive relationship was found only between the trainees' tolerance for ambiguity (Berkeley Questionnaire) and their effectiveness in communication.

Arbuckle and Wicas (2) attempted to develop a free-response appraisal instrument to measure the agreement between the counseling orientations of counselor-trainees and expert counselors. Because all but one of the items measure accurate clarification of feeling, other aspects of the counseling relationship are ignored and the instrument's usefulness is limited.

In a stimulating presentation, Horst (23) differentiated between the actuarial and other nonintuitive views in counseling evaluation as one of

degree, not kind. The essential evaluative problem centers around the counselor's willingness to "specify the factors which he takes into consideration in making a prediction."

Editors allotted considerable space to philosophical issues, especially to questions of value orientation in counseling. Perhaps, as Walters (61) has suggested, psychology's scientific antithesis has been fulfilled, and a synthesis of philosophical issues is in order. Regardless of their orientation, counselors seem agreed that the value structures of the counselor, *ipso facto*, become a part of the counseling process (1, 39, 42, 64, 65). This seems to be a departure from popular misconceptions of theorists' positions, rather than from the positions themselves. At any rate, the articles reflect a need for clarification of some philosophical bases of counseling. The issues generally center around (a) what the counselor's values ought to be and (b) whether these values ought to be consciously imposed. The second issue quickly dissolves, however, when the discussants come to terms on what the value orientation of the counselor ought to be, since the nature of the acceptable counselor-held values is incompatible with the imposition of lesser values.

### The Interaction Between Counselee and Counselor

A growing concern was shown (6, 22) for a need to study the interaction between counselor and counselee in the counseling relationship, despite the required complexity of research design and multivariate analysis. Gustad (22) has nicely stated the problems involved in this kind of research, and his own work (58) reflects an attempt to meet the need for research in counselor-counselee interaction. Tuma and Gustad (58) studied the effects of difference of personality characteristics of client and counselor on self-learning. They found that the amount of client self-learning was related to the existence of an original similarity in the personalities of counselor and counselee on three of the selected personality traits. As interesting as the article itself was the critique of the research design by Pepinsky (44), who commented that the methodological question was logically prior to the substantive one in the interpretation of research studies.

In an over-all summary of findings of a 15-year, three-phase integrated program of interview research, Berdie (6) emphasized the need for a research design that allows for an analysis of counselor-counselee interaction at many levels.

The fuller analysis by Patterson (41) of methodology in research on counseling ought to be studied carefully for its implications for determining whether the results of counseling research can be trusted and its findings put to use. The same research-design theme is repeated in another article by Patterson (38) in a consideration of his own research on counseling.

Lifton (31), in an intriguing study, reported on the relationship of empathy to aesthetic sensitivity. Despite the many problems encountered,

this attempt to establish the validity of the criterion variable of empathic ability in some way other than through such an external agent as the consensus of judges deserves recognition. Lifton correctly recognized empathy as a *relationship*, thereby calling into question the usual self-description-prediction methodology as a means of measuring empathic ability.

Utilizing interview data from the Career Pattern Study (53) and operating within a definition of the appraisal interview as one whose purpose is to learn about the counselee, Hummel (24) attempted a content-analysis of the data. He found that the utterance category in which the content of the previous communication was reflected received highest rank among the prediction weights for responsiveness.

### Summary

There is increased awareness of the need for adequate research design on interaction between counselor and counselee. Significance of contributions to counseling research may be a function of the number of variables that can be handled by the investigator in an unstructured counseling contact.

High-school populations furnished an increasing number of subjects for counseling studies. Perhaps this is the most important development reported here. It will be interesting to note whether modifications of counseling theory may result from increased controlled observation at the school-counseling level.

Finally, philosophical issues in counseling received considerable attention. Generally, discussion of the question of "neutrality" in counseling has been replaced by an examination of the nature and strength of the impact of the person of the counselor on the counseling relationship.

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## CHAPTER V

### The Use of Appraisal Data by Guidance and Personnel Workers

FRED C. PROFF

**T**HOUGH PROGRESS has been made in test theory and test validity, there remains a disappointing lack of attention to the problem of practical application of appraisal data. Users of such data are largely teachers, administrators, and guidance workers. Too frequently they are required to utilize test data with minimum technical understanding. The potential richness of the data is missed because of their limited training and the pressing necessity of using every means at hand to cope with problems which require immediate, practical solutions in the best interests of the student.

Unless the personnel worker keeps before him the multiplicity of factors that temper and shape the interpretation of test data, his efforts will yield little to further his understanding of the client or the client's understanding of himself. Since the enactment of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, test data have taken on even greater significance. Large-scale testing programs are under way in many schools that have not heretofore employed objective measuring instruments to any extent.

#### Identification of Talent

The current emphasis on identification of the talented is reflected in the studies reporting the characteristics of such youth. Anderson, Tate, and Smith (3) studied a number of such characteristics in a large sample of high-school seniors. After considering the possible influence of variables, such as school size, academic subjects, and sex differences, they concluded that an acceptable criterion for exceptional performance other than the intelligence quotient must be sought. Arnold (5) and Liddle (22) supported the view that test scores are a foundation upon which one builds, not a finished end product.

In a review of current appraisal procedure, Super (35) observed four steps in the process: (a) obtaining data about the client, (b) drawing inferences from the data which help develop a picture of the client, (c) establishing hypotheses derived from the inferences, and (d) making predictions of future behavior. If one accepts these as basic elements of the appraisal procedure, he will probably admit that the two intermediate steps represent the difference between effective utilization of knowledge and educated guesswork. Many people can accumulate data, and, in practice, the guidance worker too often immediately proceeds to the predictive phase, neglecting the potential effectiveness of the data and invalidating the economy of any prediction.

Arnold (5) found that, of a sample of college freshmen who had completed the *Kuder Preference Record* while still in high school, one-fourth had never had any discussion of their test results; he found a great deal of confusion regarding the differences between interest and aptitude. Arbuckle (4) discovered a lack of agreement between self-perceptions and scores on personality inventories. Thomas and Mayo (36) investigated the influence of added attention to the intermediate steps of the appraisal procedure. Predictions of counselors were enhanced by the added perspective provided by the investigators. McCabe (23), Faries (10), and Coleman and Collett (7) offered further suggestions for increasing the utility of test data.

### Test Selection and Interpretation

Considerable attention was given to the selection of tests and interpretation of test results to clients. Proponents of the several theoretical approaches sought to substantiate the relative superiority of their methods. Gustad and Tuma (13) compared various methods of selecting tests and interpreting data with respect to client learning. No differential effect was found in intelligence, reading, or vocational interest. They concluded that the initial accuracy of self-perception is not related to intelligence and saw no relation between scholastic aptitude and client learning relative to the self-concept in the counseling relationship. It would appear that personnel workers could profitably spend more effort on improving interpretive skills and less energy justifying the excellence of a particular theory of counseling.

### Personality and Scholastic Aptitude

A number of investigators—Liddle (22), Stone and Ganung (34), and Altus (2)—turned their attention to the relationship of personality to scholastic aptitude. Scarf (30), studying the differential between the Q and L scores of *ACE Psychological Examination* for indications of emotional problems, found a high incidence of poor academic achievement and emotional disturbance among the group whose Q-L score differential exceeded the median of 16 percentile points. Holland (16) concluded that success in college can be predicted more effectively if measures of scholastic aptitude are combined with personality measures and suggested the possibility that college achievement is the result of a general cluster of personality and aptitude variables.

### Vocational Interests

Vocational interests were studied in a variety of contexts. Stewart (32) examined the effect of the client's knowledge of aptitude test scores on the

stability of measured interests. His finding that the knowledge did not produce significant changes appeared to support the results of other studies reported in this review. Knowledge about the self in the absence of opportunity to integrate the information actively into the concept of self does not produce observable change. Hill and Rogge (15) found further evidence of the disparity between man's cognitive and conative components in their study of the relationship of interest test scores to mental maturity measures. Patterson (27) studied the nature of interests and occupational choices in the emotionally disturbed. Hoyt and Kennedy (17) studied the differences in interests between women oriented toward careers and those oriented toward homemaking.

Inventories of interests were employed in several prediction studies with varying degrees of success. England and Paterson (9) concluded that their data supported a recommendation of increased utilization of measured interest scores in the selection and classification of certain military personnel. King (19) examined the possible value of 12 kinds of data for the prediction of interest-profile stability. On the basis of data studied, he held that factors such as age and marital and socioeconomic status were not useful in predicting stability of the profiles obtained from the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank*. Motto (26), using scores on the *Kuder Preference Record* in an attempt to predict success in vocational school, found that the trainees produced essentially flat profiles and that none of the scales could be used to differentiate successful from unsuccessful students. Cooper (8) and Stewart (33) sought additional information to add to the data now available regarding the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank*.

Vineyard (38) studied the influence of academic ability and interest on the choice of a college major in science. He stated that the *ACE Psychological Examination* Q-score yielded significant information about the kind of ability important for success in science and that scientific and computational scales of the *Kuder Preference Record* were indicative of the prerequisite interests. He concluded that, though the field of science attracts more than the expected proportion of majors, many more students in college could successfully pursue scientific study. These students constitute a reservoir of talent that would respond to efforts directed toward the development of scientific interests. Socioeconomic status was found to be related to interest-inventory scores by Pierce-Jones (28). Males from upper socioeconomic groups showed positive correlations between IQ grade point average and Literary, Musical, Persuasive, and Scientific Scales of the *Kuder Preference Record*.

### Personality Tests

Coleman and Collett (7) succinctly pointed out the status of research using structured tests of personality. Sopchak (31), comparing the *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)* scores of college students

and their parents, found the scores of the parents similar to each other and different from those of their children. The *MMPI* was used to distinguish delinquent from nondelinquent boys by Rempel (29), and the items of the *California Test of Personality* were studied by Mitchell (24) in an attempt to differentiate between subjects of high and low socioeconomic status. Ullmann (37) combined teacher ratings, peer ratings, and test scores in order to predict adjustment; he found that self-descriptive personality test scores were useful in predicting drop-outs among females. The intercorrelations between 15 variables on the *Edwards Personal Preference Schedule* obtained by Allen (1) led him to question the claimed independence of these variables.

Research on personality traits over the last three years has raised more questions for the personnel worker than were answered.

### Achievement and Aptitude Tests

Of all the areas of measurement influenced by the National Defense Education Act, achievement and aptitude testing has probably felt the greatest impact. The possibility for systematic research in this field extends far beyond the original provisions of the Act. The studies reported in this section include a narrow selection confined to the realm of academic aptitude and achievement. A more detailed treatment of specific aptitudes by Guilford, Fruchter, and Kelly (12) covers the same period of time as the current review.

Henderson and Masten (14) reported on six predictors of college achievement, and Webb (40) employed five in his study of first-year students of dentistry. In another investigation of college students, French (11) found the high-school record more useful for predicting over-all freshman grades than the quality of work in the major field. Belai (6), Kennedy (18), and Vineyard (39) also worked with the problem of prediction of achievement at the college level.

Layton and Swanson (20), comparing scores on the *Differential Aptitude Tests* at grades 9 and 11, found the Verbal Reasoning Score the best single predictor of eleventh-grade test scores and high-school rank. *High School General Educational Development Test* scores were analyzed by Leton (21). Wellman (41) compared the predictive values of single scores and results of multiple factor tests of mental ability.

Wilson (42) and Mohandessi and Runkel (25) sought additional information to add relevance to test results. The former studied the effects of various educational environments upon achievement, and the latter investigators examined some of the socioeconomic factors associated with academic aptitude.

It appears that in achievement testing and academic-aptitude testing the profession is moving in the direction of more effective utilization of the data.

### Summary

Although continued interest in the use of appraisal data is demonstrated by the research during the period of this review, it is also evident that such research raised many questions and did little to clarify many basic issues. Guidance and personnel workers use appraisal data in many practical ways—to group students, for example, or to plan a curriculum; there is a growing body of respectable research on prediction for such purposes.

On the other hand, it is difficult to find significant research on the use of appraisal data in the counseling interview. Research has all too frequently stressed the use of appraisal data as a mechanical and rational procedure rather than a complex process with both cognitive and conative dimensions. In other words, because of the personal affect inherent in the acceptance or rejection of appraisal data by the client, research designs will have to take account of, not only what data are used or learned by the client, but also why they are, or are not, acceptable to the client. Perhaps only practicing counselors will be able, or inclined, to design and carry through this type of research.

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## CHAPTER VI

### Occupational and Educational Information

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**I**F RESEARCH in the area of occupational information during the last three years is to be characterized, it is to be described as continuing and enlarging the emphasis on achievement of a further understanding of career and occupational psychology. A quick perusal of the bibliography will show a majority of studies devoted to these subjects. This emphasis is owing, not to a bias of the authors, but to their response to the need for answers to some vital questions. It appears that occupational information is achieving a more meaningful relationship with the other aspects of counseling and diminishing emphasis upon mechanical aspects of collecting and disseminating information.

#### The Psychology of Occupations

The change in emphasis from the mechanical organization of occupational materials to understanding the meaning of work in terms of human behavior is illustrated by such books as those of Super (64) and Roe (57). Super presented a theory of vocational development based upon Charlotte Buehler's previous theory of life stages. In an earlier article Super (65) presented vocational development as the implementation of a self-concept and the "means of self-realization." He (63) also took to task, to some extent, the public secondary school for orienting children toward middle-class vocational conceptions, to the neglect of the needs of the 40 percent who become semiskilled or unskilled workers.

Herzberg and others (33) significantly reviewed the research concerning attitudes of employees. Their review contained about 2000 references from a variety of sources. Robinson (53, 54, 55) continued his yearly reviews of the research on job satisfaction.

Of a more specific nature was a report, in a book by Gross, Mason, and McEachern (30), of a systematic survey of role perceptions among public-school superintendents and school-board members. Super and Bachrach (66) produced a series of 12 propositions bearing upon a theory of vocational development, with emphasis on the development of choice among scientific careers. Holland (34), posing a theory of vocational choice, suggested that choice is based upon the interaction of a person's heredity and environment: the person develops a "hierarchy of habitual or preferred methods for dealing with environmental tasks" and makes a vocational choice based upon his desire to satisfy this "hierarchy of adjustive orientations."

It has been stated that Roe's formulation of a theory of vocational choice (57) contains hypotheses enough to keep the counseling psychologist busy for years to come, but the only specific test appeared to be that of Grigg (29), which failed to find a difference between 20 graduate nurses and 20 female graduate students in chemistry, physics, and mathematics in terms of their early experience with parents. There would appear to be a serious question, however, whether a comparison of these two groups constitutes a test of the hypothesis.

Patterson (50) indicated a belief that the various theories of vocational choice have some limitations when applied to the emotionally disturbed, because of the strong influence of emotional needs in this group.

French (25), in a longitudinal study of 232 Harvard undergraduates tested 12 years previously, found relationships between their prospective occupations and the measures used which indicate that there are factors in effect long before a person enters an occupation which tend to direct him toward that occupation and away from others. One criticism of this study concerns the validity of some of the measures used.

The question of occupational stereotypes is one which has long interested those concerned with vocational choice. Walker (70) found a correlation of 0.79 between the degree of stereotype and the order of preference for the occupation.

Writings by sociologists also contained an increasing number of references to research bearing upon questions of occupational psychology. Strodtheck, McDonald, and Rosen (61) reported a study of the differences in mobility between people of Jewish origin and people of Italian origin, which showed the Italians more accepting of occupations of lower status. Mack (41) reported individuals in unskilled jobs likely to define life goals in monetary terms, while individuals in more determinate occupational roles were found likely to view their work as an end in itself. Carper and Becker (10) found that conflict centered around disparities between parental and occupational expectations, rather than being a result of assuming an occupational identity.

Danskin (14) summarized some of the literature on the sociology of several occupations. Merton, Reader, and Kendall (42) edited the introductory publication of an extensive sociological study of 30,000 men and women students in some 80 medical schools. The study was concerned with the process of acculturation within a professional school.

### Occupational Classification

A satisfactory classification of occupations has long been sought, and some new attempts were made. Outstanding were those of Roe (57), Super (64), and the United States Employment Service (USES), as described by Fine and Heinz (21). Super proposed a threefold grouping by level, field, and enterprise. The USES system also was threefold, classifying (a)

what workers do and worker traits; (b) the work done; and (c) materials, products, subject matter, and services. Newman and Fine (46) reported on the validity of ratings of physical requirements and working conditions made from occupational information rather than from direct observation. Fine (19) also reported the trait requirements for workers that were related to the *Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales*.

A preliminary publication of the USES, *Estimates of Worker Trait Requirements for 4,000 Jobs* (69), was described by Fine and Heinz (20). Hall (31) suggested that the multiple-discriminant function may be a "systematic way of defining occupational families." Remstad and Rothney (52) attempted to show that the type of occupational classification used in research to a large degree determines the results of the investigation; they indicate the need for better occupational classification.

### Social Status of Occupations

As evidenced by the number of studies, the question of occupational prestige, or social status, remains a primary concern of researchers. Kunde and Dawis (37), exploring the subject in Germany, the Phillipines, and the United States, found that in all three cultures the social status of occupations "follows a predictable pattern with professional and managerial occupations ranked highest and unskilled occupations ranked lowest, with 'white-collar' occupations ranked higher than 'blue-collar' occupations." Adcock and Brown (1) in England pointed out that there is no widely accepted frame of reference for the social grading of occupations and that most individuals find their own; consequently, they questioned whether occupation, if not rigorously defined, is a meaningful approach to the study of social class.

Using high-school students as subjects, Folsom and Sobolewski (23) found a high correlation between estimates of income of occupations and ranking in social status. In a sociological study, Dyer (18) found that children's attitudes toward work are similar to the attitudes of parents, and children of the better satisfied "white-collar" workers have a more positive attitude toward the parental occupation than do children of the "blue-collar" workers. The educational and occupational aspirations of college students from nonfarm families were found by Sewell, Haller, and Straus (58) to be a function of the family social status over and above, but not exclusive of, the factor of intelligence.

Tuckman (68) attempted to modify the social-status rankings of occupations by giving the job description in addition to the job title and by giving the job description only. He found only a small change in the rankings and interpreted that finding to indicate a fixed idea by the individual about the rank of an occupation. Steffire (59), in an elaborate investigation of the nature of the social status of occupations, studied 10 factors for 20 occupations and subjected these to centroid factor analysis. A global

factor accounted for most of the intercorrelations in the matrix, and he concluded that some other approach is necessary for the study of this problem.

Two other studies related to this problem were those of Minor and Neel (43) and Hammond (32). Minor and Neel (43) obtained McClelland's achievement-motive measure on 50 Korean veterans and related this to a prestige ranking of occupations. They found a significant positive relationship between achievement motive and level of occupational preference. There was no difference in occupational ranking by those of very high, moderate, and very low *n* achievement scores. Those who had moderate and very low *n* achievement scores tended to be more realistic in occupational preference than those with very high scores. Hammond's study (32) of college freshmen yielded four tentative factors: economic-status, personal-status need, structure need, and acceptance need. It supported the hypothesis that above-average scores in a measurement of needs are positively related to the choice of certain vocational areas.

### Women's Occupational Roles

Probably the most intriguing classification of women's roles was proposed by Super (64). He proposed seven patterns: (a) stable homemaking career; (b) conventional career; (c) stable working career; (d) double-track career; (e) interrupted career; (f) unstable career; and (g) multiple-trial career. Further research to test this system of classification and to answer some of the questions propounded by Super's discussion is needed.

In a restricted sample of 86 upper-middle-class married women, Gass (26) found that pursuit of additional interests was needed even during the time when homemaking and child-care demands were fullest. She also found a striking lack of awareness of unmet needs. Ostlund (48) found in a sample of Negro college women that by age 12 the general choice of an occupational area was decided and by age 15 a specific job decision was made. Although these studies were quite different in population and design, they illustrate two fundamental questions. First, to what extent can older women revive old, or develop new, interests and thus find a more acceptable role in society? Second, to what extent do the culture and opportunities deriving from that culture predispose women to early, stable choices? Cross-sectional and introspective studies can hardly provide the answers.

### Vocational Choice

With a sample of 1000 ninth-grade students, Stephenson (60) studied realism of vocational choice and concluded that occupational aspiration

may not be realistic but that occupational planning is clearly more realistic than is often assumed. This problem was also examined by Lockwood (40), who used a stratified random sample of 508 high-school graduates. His results indicated that realism in vocational preference appeared to be an individual, rather than a "group-attached," phenomenon. Bentley and Hemp (6) sought to determine (a) the factors which influence college students of agriculture in the choice of specialization, (b) when the choice is made, and (c) satisfaction with the choice. Two-thirds decided on their specialization before entering college; seniors who made a choice before entering college indicated somewhat more satisfaction than those who chose later. Family, friends, and teachers influenced choice most.

Chervenik (11), questioning the concept of freedom of occupational choice, believed a great many factors operate to restrict choice. She pointed out that counselors themselves may limit freedom by passing on slanted information, or they may be influenced by occupational recruitment drives. The complexity of the process of occupational choice was also brought out by Drasgow (16). Finding that almost 100 percent of former University of Buffalo students who were studied listed more than one reason for making their particular choices, he contended that this fact reflects Freud's principle of overdetermination. The inference is that counselors counseling students with vocational problems would do well to explore all reasons for making a particular choice.

### Sources of Occupational Information

Two major works on the nature and use of occupational information by Baer and Roeber (4) and Hoppock (35) were revised. The *NVGA Bibliography of Current Occupational Literature* (45) was also revised. Goldstein (28) described the 1957 edition of the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* and its advantages over previous editions. Gates (27) appraised the materials supplying occupational information in the library of a local employment service office. Kuntz and Jetton (38) reported the results of their study of the use and appraisal of 52 sources of occupational literature by secondary-school counselors. Mitchell (44), discussing trends and developments in the labor force and their implications, treated shifts in employment, occupational trends, "blue-collar" occupations, and educational requirements.

Several articles provided information on specific groups of workers: the older worker (47, 67, 72, 73), the blind (2), and the Negro (3, 36).

Wolfbein (72) presented some factual and theoretical background on the problems of the older worker from the point of view of the guidance worker and attempted to answer pertinent questions. Young (73) described the Bureau of Employment Security's studies designed to develop and test methods of improving and expanding employment counseling and job-placement services to older workers. Thompson (67) set forth

several reasons for the positive correlation he found between length of time in school and total wages earned over a lifetime. His study, undertaken to assemble information on requirements for manpower and opportunities for work, is valuable to those concerned with older people in the work force. Odell (47), reviewing research on the older worker, believed prejudice and discrimination are unfortunate obstacles which deprive the older worker of his rightful place in the work structure.

Surveying the vocational objectives of 493 blind college students, Asenjo and Axelrod (2) found that 30 percent were headed toward teaching, 12 percent toward social work, and 11 percent toward law. They included data on certain characteristics of blind public-school teachers and on ordinances bearing on employment of blind teachers.

Augustine (3) related the changes in Negro employment during the 1940's to the goal of equality of opportunity for employment and offered a tentative definition of equality in employment. Kiehl (36) discussed opportunities for Negroes in engineering and concluded that discrimination has decreased to a point at which Negro youths who have interest and aptitude should be able to find careers in engineering.

Peters and Drumm (51) described the relatively new occupation of human engineering, providing basic information on duties, requirements, job titles, recommended academic preparation, salary levels, current status of the field, and possible future needs.

### Uses of Information Materials

Several articles reviewed under this heading might well have been included in the preceding section; it was difficult to distinguish source from use. Most of the following can hardly be called research, but they indicate direction of interest. The few instances of research were group oriented, and are, therefore, reported in Chapter VII, "Group Procedures in Guidance and Personnel Work."

Prevocational guidance in the elementary grades was described by Boyd (7); both parents and teachers acquainted school children with various jobs through firsthand experiences. Bridges' (8) program utilized recent graduates as a source of educational information for high-school seniors planning to attend college; Forte (24) and Parker (49) used business people to provide occupational information for high-school students. DuBato (17) recommended the use at the high-school level of case conferences on occupations.

Fitzgerald (22), describing an exploratory course dealing with occupations, which was listed as part of a fine-arts program, contended that it gave students an improved understanding of their future in terms of employment. Courses in guidance for students entering high school were described and recommended by both Langhans (39) and Roche (56).

Colver (12) asserted that college placement records are valuable to students preparing for various fields. Wasserman and Mason (71), creating a



hypothetical situation with a hypothetical student trying to find a job, prescribed the best procedure for him to follow. Beachley (5) described the advantages of using closed-circuit television to provide occupational information; both the professional staff and the high-school students were satisfied with having career information presented by television. A locally developed publication dealing with career opportunities was reported by Stroup (62). Diamond (15) suggested that the display files of occupational materials be located where students can see and use them advantageously. Burke (9) described how occupational information can be used "nondirectively."

Methods and techniques of using occupational information in the training of counselors also received attention. Cooke (13) reported how a course can provide experience for prospective counselors in all phases of occupational information.

### Summary

A persistent trend is apparent in occupational and educational information. A theoretical framework for the study and understanding of work is gradually taking form. Further refinements can easily place occupational information in more favorable light and also require understanding as great as that required in the use of tests. But research utilizing this information has not yet "got off the ground." Perhaps increased interest in theories related to career planning and vocational development may stimulate the necessary research designs.

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## CHAPTER VII

### Group Procedures in Guidance and Personnel Work

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OUR ABILITY to define adequately the phrase "group procedures in guidance" has not increased perceptibly in the last three years. An early definition provided by Hoppock (17), and more recently supplemented by those of Stoops and Wahlquist (35) and Froehlich (13), still leaves the impression that this phrase refers to any activities of guidance workers carried out with students in group, as opposed to individual, relationships. The lack of precision in definition has forced a rather arbitrary classification of topics in this review: (a) Multiple Counseling, (b) Occupations and Vocational Psychology, (c) Educational Planning, (d) Working with Parents, (e) Other Group Procedures, and (f) Examples of Successful Practices.

A brief description of the rationale behind this classification should serve to orient the reader to the contents of this chapter. Multiple counseling deserves special attention because of its inherent serious implication that counseling need not always be carried out in a one-to-one relationship. The two sections concerned with educational and vocational guidance represent convenient differentiations of basic guidance goals. "Working with Parents" is included as a separate topic, both because it represents a generally neglected area, and because some significant research has been completed on that topic in the last three years. "Other Group Procedures" contains examples of studies deemed important, but not fitting neatly into any of the other categories used. Examples of successful practices have been discussed separately in order to differentiate such reports from research utilizing designs of a more experimental nature.

#### Multiple Counseling

Multiple counseling received increased attention. Attempts to define and describe multiple counseling in operational terms were made by Driver and others (11) and Wright (39). Though both regard it as a valuable procedure, neither described its effectiveness in terms of research investigations. What of the research in this area? Five examples of controlled experiments illustrate recent attempts to assess the effectiveness of multiple counseling.

Comparing multiple counseling with an absence of counseling, Broedel (5) used the following criteria: (a) increases in school grades, (b) increases in achievement test scores, (c) increases in acceptance of self, and

\* Assisted by Mary Jane Loper and Robert McIntire.

(d) reduction in incidence of stated problems. The sample consisted of 29 gifted, underachieving high-school freshmen divided at random into experimental and control groups. The experimental treatment consisted in having 16 multiple-counseling sessions with the experimental group during an eight-week period and giving no counseling to the control subjects. Initial measures were compared with measures made at the end of the experimental period for both groups and, for the experimental group, with follow-up data obtained one week later and 16 weeks later. Significant differences between experimental and control subjects were found only on the criterion of increases in acceptance of self. Significant differences were found for experimental subjects on scores on achievement tests given immediately after counseling and on those given 16 weeks later.

Caplan (6) also studied the effectiveness of multiple counseling. Seventeen experimental subjects and 17 control subjects were selected from a population of junior high-school boys exhibiting severe problems of conflict with school authorities. The experimental treatment consisted of 10 50-minute multiple-counseling sessions. In addition, individual counseling was available to both control and experimental subjects. Using a criterion of change in magnitude of correlations between self and ideal self during the experimental period, Caplan found significant increases for the experimental subjects, but no significant changes for the control subjects. Differences in increases in grade point average during the experimental period were not statistically significant. Citizenship marks, though remaining unchanged for the control subjects, increased significantly for the experimental subjects.

To assess the effectiveness of multiple, versus individual, counseling, Hewer (16) used as subjects college students enrolled in a course entitled "Choosing Your Vocation." Her criteria were the changes in certainty and realism of vocational choice and satisfaction with vocational choice. She found no significant differences during one academic quarter between 48 subjects receiving multiple counseling and 45 subjects receiving individual counseling.

Froehlich (14) also contrasted multiple counseling and individual counseling, using 42 high-school seniors as subjects, 17 of whom were individually counseled and 25 of whom received multiple counseling. By means of a criterion of increase in accuracy of self-ratings, he found that, in two of three types of statistical comparisons made, multiple counseling produced significant increases, whereas individual counseling failed to do so. The length of the experimental period was not reported.

Effectiveness of multiple counseling as contrasted with both individual counseling and an absence of counseling was studied by Marx (24). Subjects consisted of underachieving college freshmen, divided at random into individual- and multiple-counseling treatment groups. Two control groups (Group I, a random sample of underachievers who were not invited to participate, and Group II, students invited to participate but not respond-

ing) were utilized. Treatment for both the multiple- and individual-counseling groups included three sessions. No significant differences were found when either individual- or multiple-counseled subjects were contrasted with Control Group I, using increase in a semester's grade point average as criterion. Significant differences were found favoring subjects counseled individually over subjects in Control Group II and, in addition, favoring subjects counseled individually over those receiving multiple counseling.

Difficulties in reporting on the effectiveness of multiple counseling are compounded by the various meanings applied to this term. Mercer (25) reported an instance of what she called "multiple counseling," but it utilized procedures quite different from those described by Broedel, Caplan, Hewer, Froehlich, and Marx. Related to the problem of semantics is the apparent defensiveness of advocates of both individual counseling and multiple counseling. Perhaps attempts should be made to find those learnings which can best be accomplished in multiple counseling and those which depend upon counseling the individual. It seems reasonable to assume that both kinds of counseling must have some utility in guidance and personnel programs.

### Occupations and Vocational Psychology

As a whole, research on courses dealing with occupations, career days, and other such guidance activities utilized the approach of the normative survey. Sinick and Hoppock (33), reviewing research during the period 1956 through 1958 relative to the teaching of occupations, listed 28 references of interest.

Roskens (28) reported an evaluation of high-school career days utilizing opinions of college freshmen who attended such events. Sixty-one percent of these college freshmen had attended a career day while in high school—an indication of continuing popularity of this device. However, 54 percent reported they had received no preparation for the career day, and 56 percent indicated it was not worthwhile. This confirms the feelings of many regarding the value of this type of activity.

Three experimental studies yielded conflicting results. Cuony and Hoppock's follow-up (8) to an earlier study (7) reported differences of increasing significance between students who took a course dealing with occupations and those who did not. This evaluation of a high-school course in "Job Finding and Job Orientation" was reported in terms of mean differences between experimental subjects, who had taken the course, and control subjects who had not. There were significant mean differences in favor of those having taken the course for each of the following criteria: (a) job satisfaction, (b) average number of weeks employed, and (c) annual earnings.

An interesting contrast to the impressive findings of Cuony and Hoppock was reported by Biersdorf (2), who utilized three groups of 24 college

students as follows: (a) a limited-treatment group that received only group interpretation of test results; (b) an extended-treatment group that participated, in addition, in group discussion of factors relative to choosing a vocation; and (c) a control group that received no attention. Using pre-experiment and postexperiment measures, she assessed the following criteria: (a) change in certainty, appropriateness, and suitability of certainty of vocational choice; (b) change in degree of concern about vocational problems; and (c) change in degree of concern about nonvocational problems. Though changes in terms of each of these criteria generally favored the group that had received extended treatment, statistically significant differences were found only between this group and the control group with respect to reduction in degree of concern about vocational problems.

Kutner (20) investigated the effectiveness of field trips for high-school students, utilizing criteria of job satisfaction, earnings, length of employment, and employer ratings. Application of these ultimate criteria one year after the students' graduation revealed no significant differences between experimental and control groups. The direction of differences, however, generally favored the experimental group.

On the basis of such results it would be difficult to make a strong case for some of the current group activities dealing with occupations and based on vocational psychology. First-rate surveys might give the profession additional insights into the proper balance between group activities and counseling with individuals.

### Educational Planning

Several investigations pertaining to the effectiveness of orientation activities were conducted. One of the best designed was by Williams (38), who hypothesized that a one-semester orientation course in college would significantly reduce problems; he utilized 150 first-semester college women selected at random as an experimental group and another 150 women similarly selected as control subjects. Both groups were given the *Mooney Problem Check List* at the beginning and at the close of the period. Reduction in incidence of problems among the experimental subjects was found in all areas considered, whereas slight increases were found in four areas among the control subjects. An analysis of covariance controlling initial level of problem incidence confirmed the hypothesis, showing significant differences favoring the experimental subjects.

Kobliner (19) met 35 sixth-grade pupils in 10 orientation sessions and compared them with a control group at the end of the first and second marking periods when they were in the seventh grade, applying the following criteria: (a) absence rate, (b) attitude toward school, (c) ratings by teachers of the pupils' behavior, (d) grades, (e) number of problems reported by pupils, and (f) social acceptance by peers. None of these comparisons showed experimental subjects to vary significantly from pupils



in the control group. Several of the differences, however, favored the experimental subjects in direction.

Froehlich (12) investigated the effectiveness of precounseling orientation on clients' readiness for counseling. The brief orientation period produced no significant differences between experimental (oriented) and control (nonoriented) subjects with respect to: (a) following through in requesting counseling, (b) the clients' concepts of counseling, or (c) the amount of time spent on certain topics in counseling interviews. Froehlich questioned the value of precounseling orientation for high-school students. Spivak (34) analyzed differences in the nature of problems reported by seventh- and ninth-grade pupils. His findings indicated that problems of seventh-grade pupils were much more likely to be problems of orientation than were those reported by ninth-grade pupils.

Most research in educational planning was concerned with orientation, which lends itself more readily to experimentation than other activities. Since an increasing shortage of counselors is possible, there is a need for research to distinguish educational-planning activities which can be conducted economically with groups and those which require skill in individual counseling.

### Working with Parents

Three dissertations completed at New York University dealt with the effect of the utilization of group procedures with mothers on growth in reading ability of their sons. Russell (29) used group counseling; Samuels (30) used intensive group discussion; and Shatter (32) used group therapy. Each employed experimental and control subjects. Only Shatter reported that group procedure with mothers had a positive effect on their sons' gains in reading ability. Neither Russell nor Samuels found significant differences in gains in reading achievement between experimental and control pupils.

Lassar (21) investigated the effects of group discussion on the attitudes of mothers of cerebral-palsied children. This study, involving three experimental groups (14 subjects in all) and one matched control group (five subjects), used 15 discussion sessions, each lasting one and a half hours, as the experimental treatment, and made pretreatment and post-treatment personality assessments as experimental measures. Significant positive gains were reported for 11 of the 14 experimental subjects, and no measurable improvement for any of the control group.

An interesting variation on the use of group procedures with mothers was utilized by Tamminen (36), who attempted to measure changes in mothers' attitudes toward their children after they had viewed a series of televised parent-education programs. With 400 viewers as experimental subjects and 100 nonviewers as controls, the experimental treatment consisted of a series of 15-minute discussions by panels of parents

which were moderated by a child psychologist. Measures of parental attitudes toward their grade-school children before and after the series were used as the prime experimental measure. Mean scores of viewers showed a statistically significant, but not a large, increase, whereas mean scores of nonviewers remained unchanged. Tamminen proposed further exploration of the value of group viewing of televised programs.

### Other Group Procedures

The variety of studies reported in this section demonstrates that many kinds of operations and research methods can be subsumed under the heading of group procedures. Undoubtedly some of the research may be more closely related to instruction than to guidance and personnel work. Clarification is needed.

Borow (3) wrote provocatively on the nature and importance of personal-development courses as group-guidance procedure. However, the effects of such courses were not investigated.

Four studies of the effects of group procedures on attitude changes in students were reported, those of Miller and Biggs (26), Grater (15), Mann and Mann (23), and Willerman (37). Miller and Biggs (26) investigated the effectiveness of free group discussion on attitudes towards racial groups when the discussion groups were sociometrically structured. Secondary-school students from one school constituted experimental and control subjects. Two experimental groups were formed; members of one group had sociographs considered high in cohesion, and members of the other, low. A control group was selected without reference to sociometric structure. An attitude scale, administered to both experimental and control groups before and after a period of free group discussion with experimental subjects constituted the experimental measure, and the discussion itself was the experimental treatment. Significant positive changes in attitudes were shown for both experimental groups, whereas attitudes of control subjects remained unchanged. No difference in changes in attitude was observed between the two experimental groups.

Grater (15) investigated the effects of free group discussion in a leadership-training course on changes in disparity between self-perception and ideal self for 30 college students elected to leadership positions. Twenty-two group-discussion sessions constituted the experimental period, and differences between pretreatment and post-treatment scores on the *Bills Inventory of Adjustment*, the experimental measure. Significant reductions were found in the discrepancy between the ideal and the perceived self, but no significant differences were observed between the ideal self and the generalized other person as defined by the *Bills Inventory of Adjustment*. Grater concluded that experiences in a group situation can make significant changes in attitudes towards self.

Mann and Mann (23) compared the effectiveness of leaderless role-playing with leaderless group discussion on various aspects of inter-

personal adjustment. Pretest measures indicated no significant differences in interpersonal adjustment among members of both groups. These same measures at the conclusion of the 12-session experimental period showed significant differences between the two groups; the results favored the leaderless role-playing group on the criteria of (a) desirability as a friend, (b) aiding in the attainment of a group goal, and (c) co-operative-ness.

Willerman (37) found that, after only one discussion session with university fraternity members, significant increases occurred in acceptance of the university administration as an authority and in the belief that the university is interested in the welfare of the fraternities. No change was observed in the control group.

Studies dealing with group procedures for elementary-school children were conducted by Denny (10) and by Davis (9). Denny, studying the effectiveness of motion pictures in reducing frustration in children, found significant differences in scores on the *California Test of Personality* favoring those who received the experimental treatment, which consisted of a series of selected guidance motion pictures. Davis, also using control and experimental subjects, observed a puppet-play technique to produce significant differences in behavior reactions favoring the experimental subjects.

Those interested in applications of mental-hygiene procedures in group settings with school-age children will find a comprehensive set of descriptions and suggestions in a monograph of the American Personnel and Guidance Association (1).

This chapter has not sought to review research in group psychotherapy, but the investigations of Kaufman (18) and Sanborn (31) in this area are provocative.

### Examples of Successful Practices

There remains the criterion of consumer satisfaction as a means of assessing the effectiveness of group procedures in guidance. Richards (27) reported the use of upper-class junior high-school students as conveyors of information to students in lower grades about the availability and proper use of counseling services and pointed out that following such a plan served to free the counselor for individual interviews. Brewer (4) reported that the use of multiple counseling at the junior high-school level motivated students to seek individual interviews and made them aware of their common problems.

Satisfaction with the use of group procedures with parents was reported by MacKay (22), who conducted meetings to provide parents of junior high-school students with information about the curriculum, opportunities, and activities of the senior high school.

In all of these descriptions the "Hawthorne" effect may well account for most satisfactions. It might even be profitable to study the degree of

"Hawthorne" effect which can be expected from the relationship inherent in group activities.

### Summary

What new understandings have been reached in group procedures in guidance during the last three years? It is apparent that counselors are being forced to question seriously whether counseling must be carried out in a one-to-one relationship. At the same time, conditions conducive to effective multiple counseling were not demonstrated clearly enough to give the typical counselor cause to change his approach. The primary implications of research in multiple counseling seemed to be directed more toward those engaged in preparation of counselors than toward practicing counselors.

The effectiveness of group procedures in guidance in vocational development was not unanimously demonstrated. Especially interesting in this sphere were the several attempts to assess effectiveness through the use of more ultimate, rather than immediate, criteria.

The use of group procedures in guidance as aids in educational planning was investigated primarily through assessing the effectiveness of orientation procedures. Other procedures in this area received little attention.

Group procedures in working with parents through guidance programs were demonstrated to be worthy of more intensive investigation. The wide variation in topics included as "other" group procedures in guidance served to indicate still further the need for a more precise definition of the field. Group procedures in guidance directed toward personal development received almost no attention from researchers. Examples of practices deemed successful by schools employing group procedures continued to be numerous. As part of guidance and personnel services, group procedures showed themselves to be useful in some areas and promised utility in others.

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## CHAPTER VIII

### The Evaluation of Guidance and Personnel Services

JOHN W. M. ROTHNEY and GAIL F. FARWELL

AS THE GUIDANCE movement enters into its second half-century, there is general recognition of the need for evaluation of its services, but little evidence that the need is being met. Guidance services, like many others in education, are still offered largely on the bases of hope and faith. Cottle's statement (8) three years ago about the paucity of, and the great need for, co-operative and better-designed research is as apropos today as it was then.

Only three books evaluating guidance services have been published during the 50 years since such services began, and one describing an extensive follow-up appeared during the period under review. (All other reports were brief articles in which the period covered from the application of the guidance service to its evaluation was relatively short.) In that book Rothney (34) described his attempt to assess vocational, educational, and social activities of two groups at six months, two and one-half years, and five years after high-school graduation. The experimental group consisted of 343 subjects who had been counseled and who were compared with 342 members of a control group who had received no special counseling while they were in senior high school. The many findings of the research were summarized in his statement that counseling did seem to assist in the accomplishment of the objectives of the American secondary school.

General discussions of the need for evaluation of guidance services appeared frequently, and some of them raised issues that should be considered by evaluators. Patterson's discussion (27) of matching versus randomization in studies of counseling merited special attention. Callis, Polmantier, and Roeber (3), in their summary of five years of research on counseling at the University of Missouri, raised some crucial questions. Coleman (6) listed 26 evaluative studies that he thought were needed. Heist (18), Hall (17), the Fifty-Eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (1), and Strang (37) placed evaluation studies high on their lists of researches desirable in guidance.

#### The Criterion Problem

Researchers were plagued with the problem of securing adequate terminal measures of attempts to provide guidance services. At times the concern went beyond the problem of how to evaluate, to a consideration of the very difficult problem of what to assess. Investigators used, as



criteria of counseling effectiveness, such items as (a) persistence in school or post-high-school activities, (b) performance in college or other educational undertakings, (c) students' grade-point averages, (d) evaluation by client of guidance offerings, (e) changes of goals or interests, (f) job satisfaction, (g) tendency to use public welfare assistance agencies, (h) amount of earnings, (i) client's self-knowledge, (j) level of affect, (k) optimism about the future, and (l) specificity of choice of vocation. The use of such varied criteria may result partially from the wide assortment of assignments that counselors undertook or were delegated.

Purcell (31) studied the responses of 106 counselors to a questionnaire about functions which they attempted to perform. The clerical duties, administrative chores, and nonprofessional activities which they were assigned made it difficult for them to indicate their counseling and guidance goals, much less establish criteria for evaluative studies.

The lack of agreement about goals of counseling among those who do evaluative research was illustrated by a discussion by Goodstein and Grigg (13) about client satisfaction as a measure of counseling effectiveness. Grater (14) raised some of the issues about problems concerning criteria in his discussion of the situations in which a counselee's progress seemed to indicate a counselor's failure. Poole's study (29) revealed important differences between a counselor's judgment of the outcomes of counseling and a typescript reader's judgment of them.

Carlson and Rothney (5) found that 10 graduate students in guidance who rated responses to follow-up questionnaires by counseled and uncounseled high-school seniors could agree well with themselves on two different ratings and with other raters, when considering factual responses. There was, however, a lack of consistency by individual raters, and among the raters, in judging attitudinal responses and responses for which the subjects had given reasons; this finding suggested that, without knowledge of the background of the counselee, judging of the effectiveness of counseling on the bases of responses to questionnaires was an impossible task. Kaczkowski and Rothney (20), in an exploratory study of the use of discriminant analysis for evaluative studies of counseling, demonstrated that criteria need not be developed before evaluation is done. They recommended further trials of such procedures.

It is evident that the problem of selecting and securing adequate measures of criteria against which guidance services are to be assessed has not been solved. This conclusion can be checked by reading reviews of the following studies.

### **Before-and-After Studies**

Investigations of guidance services in colleges, schools, and agencies took a variety of forms. A common technique appeared to be the use of a "prior look" at a sample, the application of a particular guidance

service or procedure, and then an attempt to assess the effectiveness of the procedure by a second look at the sample to determine whether expected changes materialized.

Burnett and Basham (2) described program objectives of a vocational-counseling service in a Veterans Administration hospital and presented several implications for evaluation research which resulted from their investigation. Phillips (28) described a counseling service at a public assistance agency and raised questions about the effectiveness of that counseling in assisting persons to return to self-supporting roles. Although his sample was limited to two groups of 25 subjects each, he drew a generalized conclusion that, during counseling, attitudes can be developed which tend to establish an independent behavior pattern. Agencies outside educational settings have a variety of counselees and situational problems with which they must contend. A review of studies in such agencies showed only isolated attempts at evaluation. The one cited above was representative of the relatively few which appeared in print.

Some studies dealt with before-and-after analyses in terms of the applicability of specific instruments or techniques. Grigg and Goodstein (15) utilized the questionnaire method in asking clients to evaluate their counselors' performances. Several criteria were structured for evaluation, and the results indicated that clients could, and did, evaluate counselors within the limitations of the study design. The 56.6 percent return of the questionnaires leaves the reader speculating about the possible influence on the results of nonrespondents' evaluations, if their replies had been obtained.

Stern, Lewis, and Bever (36) obtained from 52 male subjects a rating of their interests prior to the administering of the *Kuder Preference Record* and prior to counseling. The study revealed that significant changes in the subjects' estimation of their interest patterns were produced by counseling, but showed that the taking of the *Kuder Preference Record* was of little value in helping the subjects make a more adequate appraisal of their interests.

Hill and Morrow (19) made a study to determine the effect of guidance services on the drop-out rate in schools. They obtained ratings of the guidance services of 19 schools by a jury of guidance specialists. The investigators then attempted to determine the relationship between a drop-out index and the rated adequacy of the schools' guidance services. A small but consistent relationship between the two variables was found. Additional comparisons revealed no difference between the drop-out index and teachers' educational preparation, teacher-pupil ratio, teacher turnover, or number of transported pupils. It was concluded that the rated quality of the guidance services and quality of curricular offerings were more closely related to a low drop-out rate than the other variables.

Patterson's study (26) of counseled and noncounseled individuals in an industrial school revealed no significant differences between the groups

when criteria of persistence in attendance and grades were employed. He suggested that the factor of motivation needed further investigation.

Another approach to evaluation after counseling was presented by Weeks (41), who studied internal factors of counseling interviews in a sample of high-school boys. He found that the level of affect was significantly related to the proportion of the talking done by the client in each analysis unit. The counselor's style and level of affect were not significantly related.

Studies dealing with personnel services at the college level were more numerous than those at other educational levels. This situation raised the following questions: (a) Are studies in guidance and counseling more plentiful at this level because research is given more positive support? (b) Is research at this level needed more than research at the elementary- and secondary-school levels? (c) Is it possible that counselor-educators do not emphasize research to the degree that school counselors see this as an important aspect of their work? (d) Can university researchers get their materials published more readily than guidance workers employed in elementary- and secondary-school settings?

Even though there are more evaluative studies at the college level than at the elementary- and secondary-school levels, differences in the quality of the research were not always significant. Nevertheless, there were interesting exploratory studies. For example, Robertson (33) reported on a precollege testing and counseling program conducted at the University of Mississippi. One hundred and eighty-six students participated in the three-day program. Robertson found that 25 percent of the students changed their goals, 47 percent changed their choice of highest interest, 80 percent changed with respect to their understanding of their highest and lowest aptitudes, and 43 percent changed their estimates of the vocational scene. A follow-up two years later revealed little stability in the subjects' self-estimates.

Farwell (12), in a study of a counseling-admissions procedure for borderline applicants for admission at Michigan State University, reported that staff counselors of the university, who utilized an intensive counseling procedure, were able to identify those who might be successful in college with greater certainty than the high-school officials who had recommended admission and predicted likelihood of success. The criteria were obtained from a one-year follow-up of those admitted through the counseling-admissions procedure.

King and Matteson (22) received a 48.8 percent return to a questionnaire dealing with students' perceptions of a university counseling center. They found that students brought the gamut of human problems to the center. Females brought educational problems more than males; freshmen and sophomores brought more educational problems than did juniors and seniors. Generally, these Michigan State students brought educational-vocational or social-personal problems, but not both types of problems, to the center.

Gustad and Tuma (16) were not able to discover any significant differential effects on the learning of counselees when different procedures of testing and interpreting were employed. They felt that the results of their study should cause guidance workers to question seriously some of the widely accepted ideas and opinions about the relationship of success of counseling to specific techniques. Robertson (32) checked similarities and differences between counselors and clients in evaluating counseling interviews. He found agreement on the reasons for seeking counseling, the benefits obtained, and decisions regarding educational and vocational plans, but found less agreement on the reasons for benefits obtained and influence of a testing program on plans.

Tuma and Gustad's small sample of 58 cases limited their findings in a study of the influence of clients' and counselors' personalities on clients' learning (40). They concluded that counselors who utilized essentially the same methods with similar clients produced different effects on their clients' performances in learning about themselves. They also noted that close resemblance between clients and counselors on personality variables was associated with the achievement of relatively better self-understanding by the client. By a questionnaire, Porter (30) studied a systematic selection of clients counseled by 50 different counselors over a four-year span. One hundred and two of 190 responses solicited were usable. The responding clients were satisfied with the counseling they had received. So many variable influences were reported, however, that many questions must be raised about the efficacy of the procedure employed. The greatest gain appeared to be that of providing a structure for future evaluative attempts.

The studies reported here are representative. The lack of long-term studies, the use of limited samples, the inadequacy of procedures and techniques, and the failure to obtain adequate criteria suggest that there is much to be done in the sphere of before-and-after experimentation. The investigators are to be commended for their pioneering efforts. They have shown clearly, however, that their methods, procedures, and designs have not yet produced evidence of the effectiveness of guidance services to the extent that guidance personnel can be complacent or satisfied.

### Control-Group Studies

Relatively few researchers in guidance and personnel have employed the control-group method. Among the exceptions, Scarborough and Wright (35) used control and experimental groups in a study designed to test the effectiveness of a precollege educational guidance clinic. They found no statistically significant differences in grade point averages and persistence until graduation between those who did, and those who did not, attend the clinic. Merenda and Rothney (25) developed experimental evaluation scales in an attempt to evaluate the effects of an intensive counseling program eight years after the beginning of counseling and five years after

its termination. The data tended to reveal a more desirable pattern of adult behavior and attitudes for the experimental group than for the control group in terms of the criteria designed to measure such outcomes.

Caravello (4) used control-group procedures to compare the effects of counseling by teacher-counselors to those of counseling by an itinerant guidance specialist. He reported a more positive evaluation for the guidance specialist than for the teacher-counselor. Many of the authors of studies listed as titles in summaries of theses and dissertations by Cottle, Callis, and Polmantier (9), Cottle, Hummel, and Muthard (10), and Cottle (7) employed control-group methods.

During the last three years, attempts to evaluate group procedures in guidance services continued. Some of them are reported in Chapter VII, "Group Procedures in Guidance and Personnel Work."

### Miscellaneous Studies

In any categorization of research, a few studies which attempt to assess some aspect of the education of counselors or the effects of guidance services are always difficult to classify. An example is McCully's description (24) of developments in counseling in the Veterans Administration since 1943. He concluded that the program had helped to create positive attitudes among adults toward counseling as a legitimate and valuable function. Thomas and Mayo (38) studied the effectiveness of counseling with Marine recruits; after a second evaluation it was concluded that the training procedure employed was effective in improving counselors' predictions of recruits' performances.

Kirk (23) analyzed the effectiveness of inservice preparation of counselors. She was not satisfied with the three instruments developed to assess the program and indicated need for further investigation. Thrush (39) undertook a case study of a counseling center to determine the forces and dynamics at work. Counselors classified counseling problems by Q-sort procedures and repeated the procedures four years later. The principal finding was that there had been a major philosophical shift on the part of the counselors from an emphasis on vocational counseling to an emphasis on counseling for personal adjustment.

Kiell (21) utilized client-satisfaction checklists to evaluate the counseling procedures of the faculty at Brooklyn College. He found that students were not aware of, or familiar with, counseling procedures. They were generally favorable toward the services but indicated areas in which improvement was needed. Estrin (11) reported an evaluation of professional career speakers on the basis of responses to questionnaires sent to 60 schools in which the speakers had appeared. The report was not definitive, but the author concluded that the program sponsored by the New Jersey Engineers Committee for Student Guidance warranted continuation.

## Summary

It was apparent that some progress in evaluation of guidance services was made during the period under review. Neither quality nor quantity of research studies warrants a high degree of optimism about the evaluation of guidance and personnel services. The pioneering efforts so far achieved have indicated that the problems of securing adequate criteria, amassing longitudinal data, and devising suitable research designs have not yet been solved. There is, however, evidence that professional guidance workers are becoming more aware of the need for solving them.

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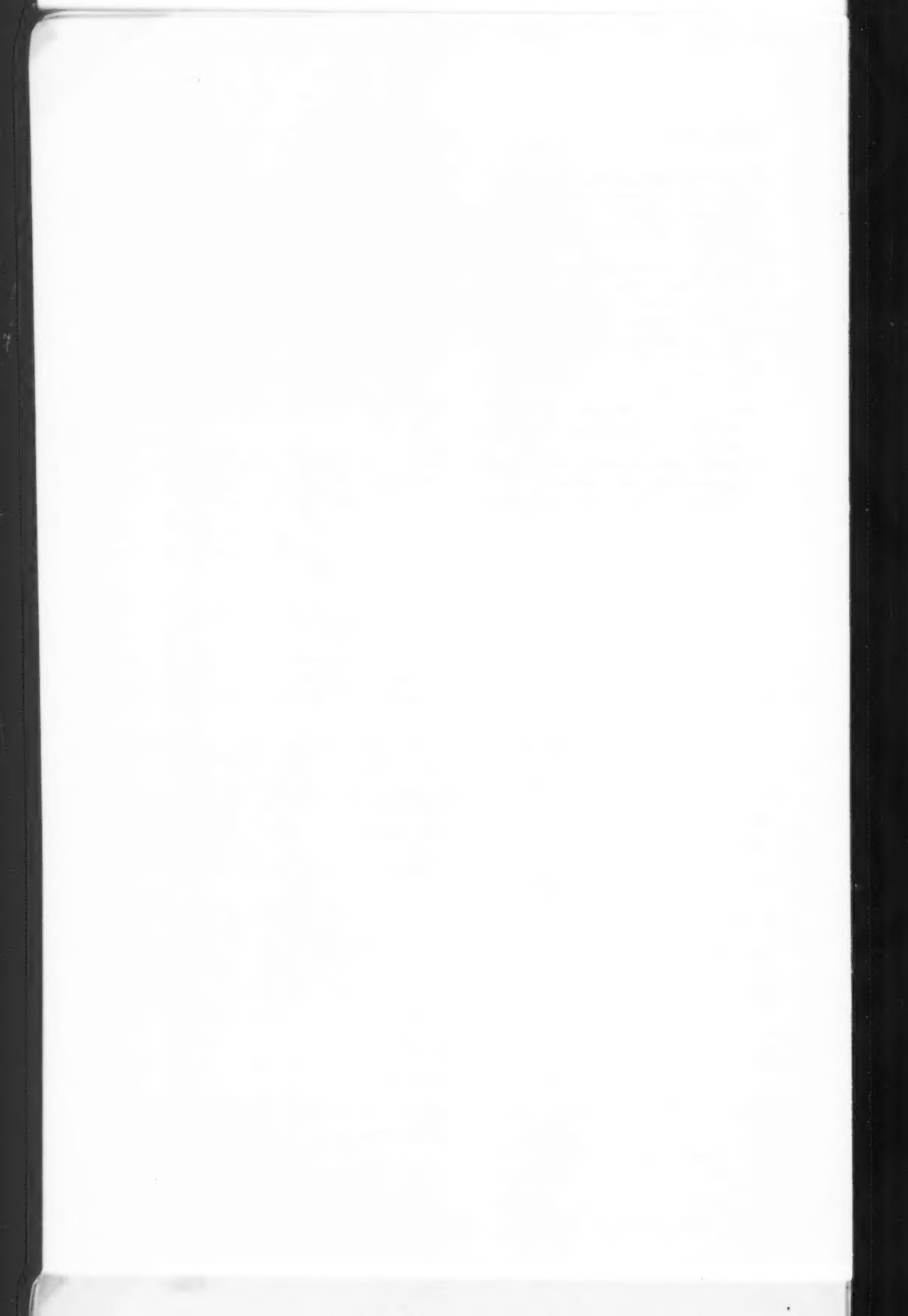
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